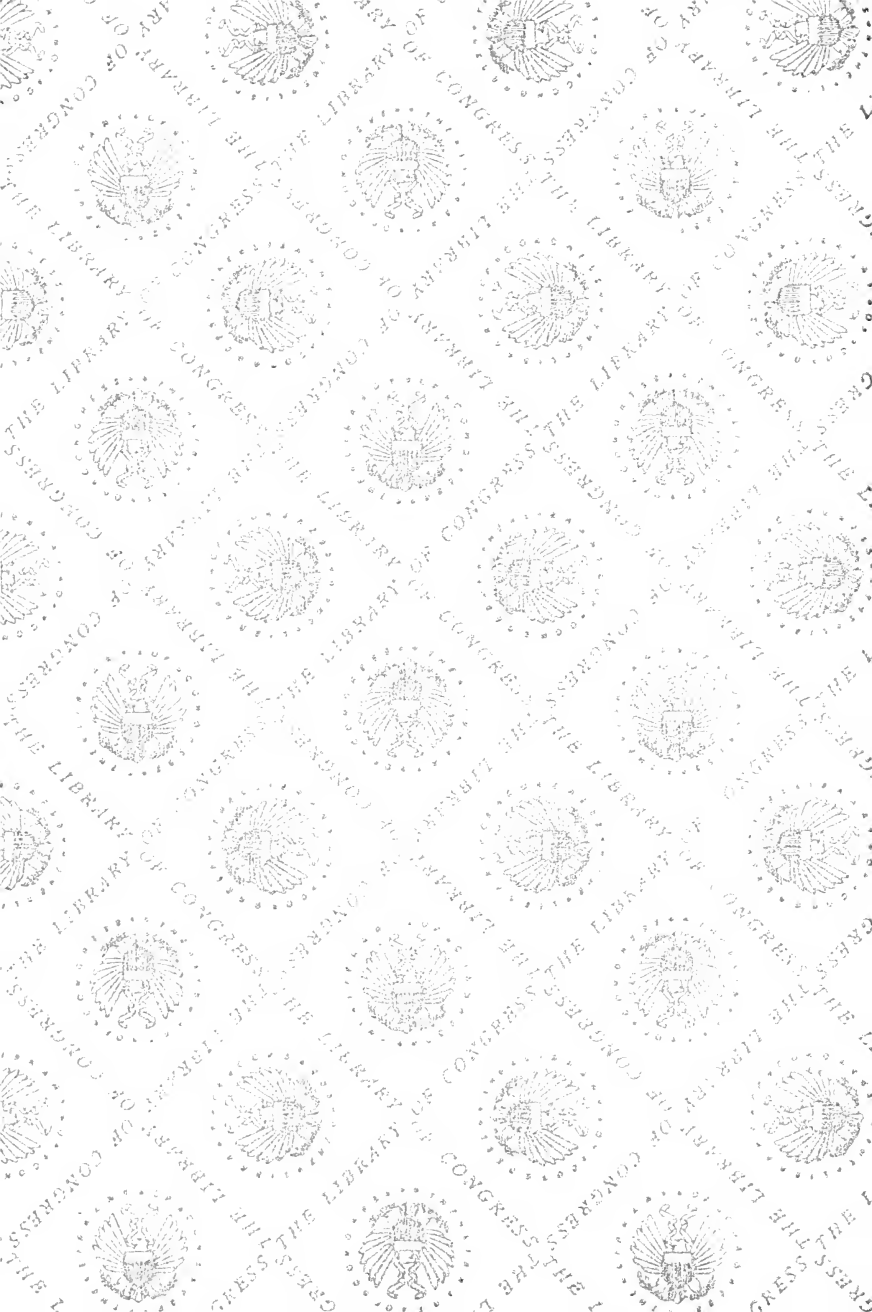
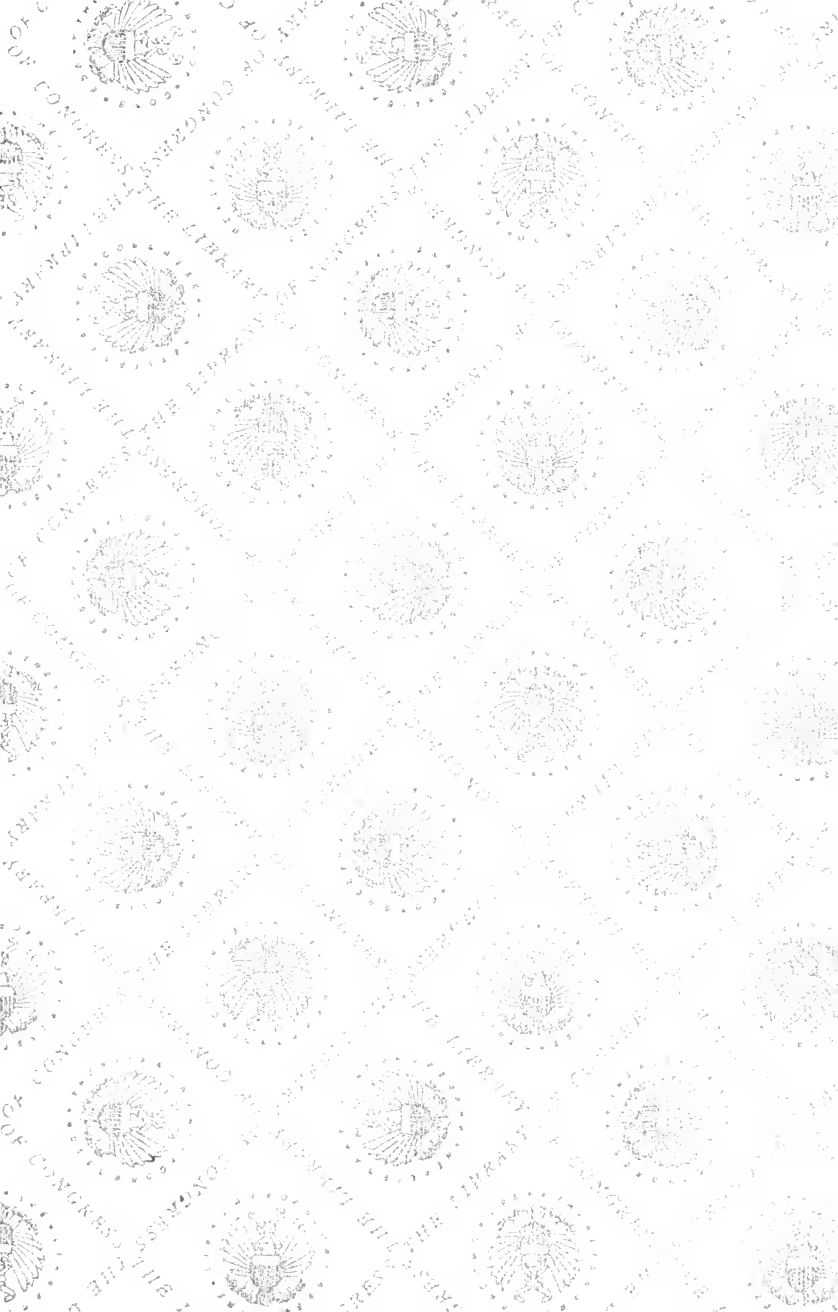


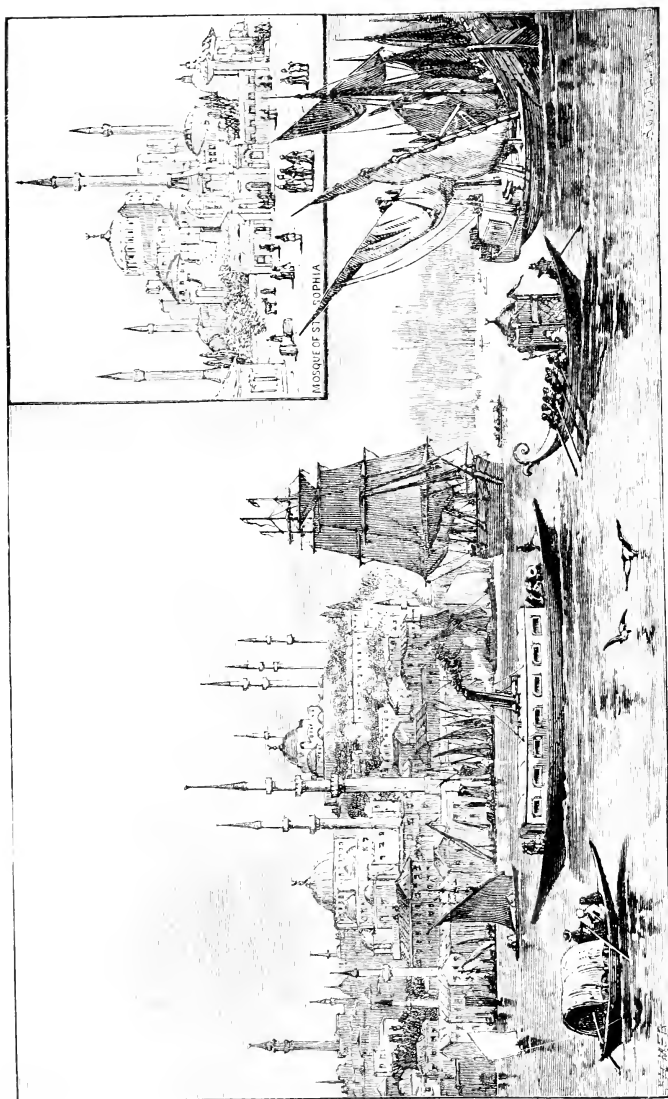
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A BRIEF HISTORY
OF
MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN
PEOPLES

WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF THEIR INSTITUTIONS, ARTS,
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS

BY
JOEL DORMAN STEELE, PH.D., F.G.S.
AND
ESTHER BAKER STEELE, LIT.D.



NEW YORK · CINCINNATI · CHICAGO
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MEDLÆVAL PEOPLES.

“ We may gather out of History a policy no less wise than eternal, by the comparison of other men’s miseries with our own like errors.”

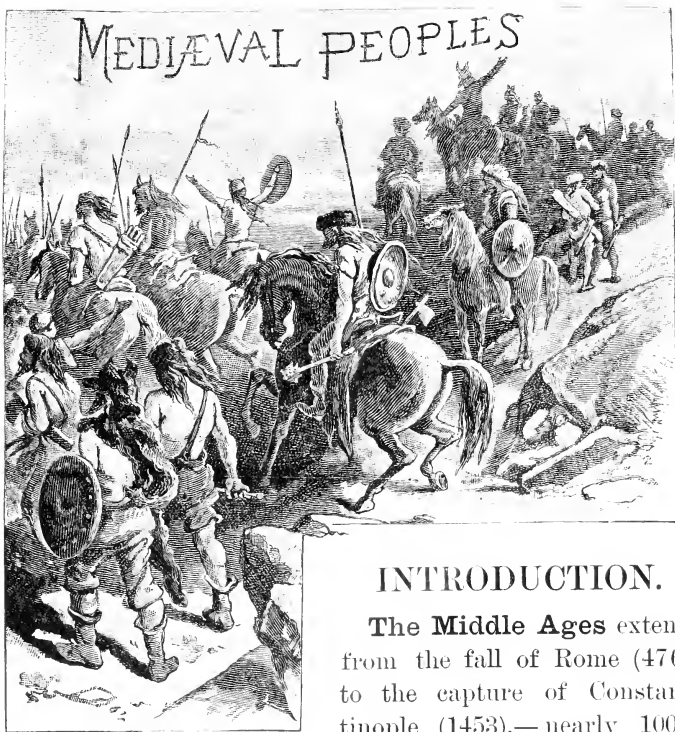
Sir Walter Raleigh’s History of the World.

BLACKBOARD ANALYSIS.

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 5. THE TOURNAMENT.
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 7. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

[When writing upon the blackboard, the pupil can fill out the subdivisions from the headings of the paragraphs in the text.]



IN SIGHT OF ROME.

INTRODUCTION.

The Middle Ages extend from the fall of Rome (476) to the capture of Constantinople (1453),—nearly 1000 years. Their principal events were the migrations of the northern barbarians (Anc. Peo., p. 266); the invasion of the Saracens; the establishment

Geographical Questions.—These queries are intended to test the pupil's knowledge, to make him familiar with the maps of the middle ages, and to prepare him to locate the history he is about to study. See list of maps, p. v. Bound Syria, Arabia, Gaul, Britain, Spain, Norway, Sweden, France, Italy, Germany, Hungary,

of the Frankish kingdom, including the empire of Charlemagne; the rise of the modern nations; the Crusades; the Hundred-Years' War; and the Wars of the Roses. The era was in general characterized by the decline of letters and art, the rise of feudalism or the rule of the nobles, and the supremacy of the papal power.

Two Divisions.—Six of the ten centuries composing this period are called the *Dark Ages*,—a long night following the brilliant day of Roman civilization. The last four centuries constitute the dawn of the modern era. Wandering tribes then became settled nations, learning revived, and order and civilization began to resume their sway.

A New Era of the world began in the 5th century. The gods of Greece and Rome had passed away, and a better religion was taking their place. The old actors had vanished from the stage, and strange names appeared. Europe presented a scene of chaos. The institutions of centuries had crumbled. Everywhere among the ruins barbarian hordes were struggling for the mastery. Amid this confusion we are to trace the gradual outgrowth of the modern nation-

Poland, Russia.—Locate Carthage, Jerusalem, Mecca, Damascus, Bagdad, Alexandria, Acre, Tunis, Moscow, Delhi, Constantinople.

Locate Tours, Rheims, Fontenay, Verdun, Crécy, Poitiers, Agincourt, Limoges, Calais, Rouen, Orleans, Metz, Avignon, Bordeaux.—Locate Cordova, Seville, Granada, Castile, Aragon, Leon.

Locate Lombardy, Sicily, Pisa, Genoa, Rome, Florence, Milan, Naples, Venice, Salerno, Legnano, Padua, Bologna, Savoy.

Locate London, Hastings, Oxford, Runnymede, Lewes, Bosworth, Dover, Bannockburn.—Locate the Netherlands (Low Countries), Flanders, Bouvines, Courtrai, Ghent, Bruges, Rosebecque, Aix-la-Chapelle.—Describe the Indus, Rhine, Rhone, Danube, Seine, Loire.—Point out Bavaria, Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Thuringia, Basle, Prague, Worms, Waiblingen.

Point out the French provinces: Normandy, Provence, Aquitaine, Brittany, Burgundy, Champagne, Maine, Anjou, Toulouse, Valois, Navarre, Gascony, Lorraine, Armagnac, Alsace, Franche Comté.—Locate Granson, Morat, Nancy, Morgarten, Sempach, Geneva.

Close of the 5th Century



alities.¹ Heretofore the history of one great nation has been that of the civilized world, changing its name only as power passed, from time to time, into the hands of a different people. Henceforth there are to be not *one* but *many* centers of civilization.

Teutonic Settlements.—The Teutons or Germans (p. 16) were the chief heirs of Rome. By the 6th century the *Vandals* had established a province in northern Africa; the *Visigoths* had set up a Gothic kingdom in Spain and southern Gaul (Anc. Peo., p. 268); the *Franks*, under Clovis, had firmly planted themselves in northern Gaul; the *Burgundians* had occupied southeastern Gaul; and the *Anglo-Saxons* had crossed the Channel and conquered a large part of Britain.

The *Ostrogoths*, under Theodoric (489), climbed the Alps and overthrew Odoacer, King of Italy (Anc. Peo., p. 269). Theodoric set up his government at Ravenna, under a nominal commission from the Emperor of Constantinople. The *Visigoths* accepted him as chief, and his kingdom ultimately extended from the heart of Spain to the Danube. An Arian, he yet favored the Catholics, and, though unable to read or write, encouraged learning. "The fair-haired Goths," says Collier, "still wearing their furs and brogues, carried the sword; while the Romans, wrapped in the flowing toga, held the pen and filled the schools."

Character of the Teutonic Conquest.²—In Italy,

¹ The thoughtful student of history sees in the middle ages a time not of decay, but of preparation; a period during which the seeds of a better growth were germinating in the soil. Amid feudal chaos, the nations were being molded, language was forming, thought taking shape, and social forces were gathering that were to bear mankind to a higher civilization than the world had ever seen.

² While the Teutonic conquest, in the end, brought into mediæval civilization a new force, a sense of personal liberty, and domestic virtues unknown to the Romans, yet, at the time, it seemed an undoing of the best work of ages. During the merciless massacre that lasted for centuries upon the island of Britain, the priests were slain at the altar, the churches burned, and the inhabitants nearly annihilated;

Gaul, and Spain, the various Teutonic tribes did not expel, but absorbed, the native population. The two races gradually blended. Out of the mingling of the German and the Roman speech, there grew up in time the Romance languages,—Spanish, Italian, and French. Latin, however, was for centuries used in writing. Thus the Roman names and forms remained after the empire had fallen. The invaders adopted the laws, civilization, and Christian religion of the conquered. The old clergy not only retained their places, but their influence was greatly increased; the churches became a common refuge, and the bishops the only protectors of the poor and weak.

On the contrary, the Anglo-Saxons, who conquered Britain, enslaved or drove back the few natives who survived the horrors of the invasion. Not having been, while in Germany, brought in contact with the Roman power, these Teutons had no respect for its superior civilization. They did not, therefore, adopt either the Roman language or religion. Christianity came to them at a later day; while the English speech is still in its essence the same that our forefathers brought over from the wilds of Germany.

The Eastern, Greek, or Byzantine Empire, as it is variously called, was governed by effeminate princes until the time of *Justinian* (527), who won back a large part of

while the Roman and Christian civilization was blotted out, and a barbaric rule set up in its place. The Vandals in Spain (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 269) found fertile, populous Roman provinces; they left behind them a desert. The Burgundians were the mildest of the Teutonic conquerors, yet where they settled they compelled the inhabitants to give up two thirds of the land, one half of the houses, gardens, groves, etc., and one third of the slaves. Italy, under the ravages of the terrible Lombards and other northern hordes, became a "wilderness overgrown with brushwood and black with stagnant marshes." Its once cultivated fields were barren; a few miserable people wandered in fear among the ruins of the churches,—their hiding-places,—while the land was covered with the bones of the slain. Rome became almost as desolate as Babylon. "The baths and temples had been spared by the barbarians, and the water still poured through the mighty aqueducts, but at one time there were not five hundred persons dwelling among the magnificent ruins."

the lost empire. His famous general, Belisarius, captured Carthage,¹ and overwhelmed the Vandal power in Africa. He next invaded Italy and took Rome, but being recalled by Justinian, who was envious of the popularity of his great general, the eunuch Narses was sent thither, and, under his skilful management, the race and name of the Ostrogoths perished. Italy, her cities pillaged and her fields laid waste, was now united to the Eastern Empire, and governed by rulers called the Exarchs of Ravenna. So Justinian reigned over both new and old Rome.

The Roman Laws at this time consisted of the decrees, and often the chance expressions, of the threescore emperors from Hadrian to Justinian. They filled thousands of volumes, and were frequently contradictory. Tribonian, a celebrated lawyer, was employed to bring order out of this chaos. He condensed the laws into a code that is still the basis of the civil law of Europe.

During this reign, two Persian monks, who had gone to China as Christian missionaries, brought back to Justinian the eggs of the silkworm concealed in a hollow cane. Silk manufacture was thus introduced into Europe.

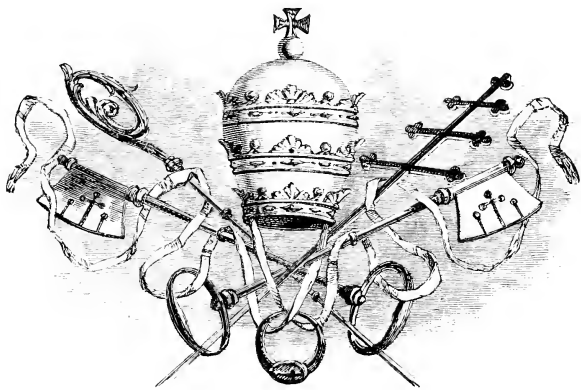
The Lombards (568), a fierce German tribe, after Justinian's death, poured into Italy and overran the fruitful plain that still bears their name. For about 200 years the Lombard kings shared Italy with the Exarchs of Ravenna.

The Papacy.—During these centuries of change, confusion, and ruin, the Christian Church had alone retained its

¹ Among the treasures of Carthage were the sacred vessels of the Temple at Jerusalem taken by Titus to Rome, and thence carried to Carthage by Genseric. As these relics were thought to presage ruin to the city which kept them, they were now returned to the Cathedral at Jerusalem, and their subsequent fate is unknown. According to the legend, contradicted by many historians but eagerly seized by poets and painters, Belisarius in his old age was falsely accused of treason, degraded from his honors, and deprived of his sight: often thereafter the blind old man was to be seen standing at the Cathedral door, begging "a penny for Belisarius, the general."

organization. The barbarians, even the Lombards,—the most cruel of all,—were in time converted to Christianity. The people, who, until the overthrow of the emperor, had been accustomed to depend upon Rome for political guidance, continued to look to the Bishop of Rome for spiritual control and as a natural consequence the Church gradually became the center of vast temporal power also. Thus for centuries the papacy (Lat. *papa*, a bishop) gained strength; the Christian fathers Ambrose, Augustine, Jerome, Gregory the Great, and a host of other active intellects, shaping its doctrines and discipline.

The Patriarch of Constantinople also asserted the pre-eminence of his See, and, on account of the opposition he met from Rome, the Eastern or Greek Church gradually separated from the Western or Roman, in interest, discipline, and doctrine.



THE PAPAL INSIGNIA.

EARLY GERMAN CIVILIZATION.

Two thousand years ago, in the dense forests and gloomy marshes of a rude, bleak land, dwelt a gigantic, white-skinned, blue-eyed, yellow-haired race.

The Men, fierce and powerful, wore over their huge bodies a short girdled cloak, or the skin of some wild beast, whose head, with protruding tusks or horns, formed a hideous setting for their bearded faces and cold, cruel eyes. Brave, hospitable, restless, ferocious, they worshiped freedom, and were ready to fight to the death for their personal independence. They cared much less for agriculture than for hunting, and delighted in war. Their chief vices were gambling and drunkenness; their conspicuous virtues were truthfulness and respect for women.

The Women—massive like the men, and wooed with a marriage gift of war-horse, shield, and weapons—spun and wove, cared for the household, tilled the ground, and went with their lords to battle, where their shouts rang above the clash of the spear and the thud of the war-ax. They held religious festivals, at which no man was allowed to be present, and they were believed to possess a special gift of foresight; yet, for all that, the Teuton wife was bought from her kindred, and was subject to her spouse. As priestesses, they cut the throats of war-captives and read portents in the flowing blood; and after a lost battle they killed themselves beside their slaughtered husbands.

The Home—when there was one—was a hut made of logs filled in with platted withes, straw, and lime, and covered by a thatched roof, which also sheltered the cattle. Here the children were reared, hardened from their babyhood with ice-cold baths, given weapons for playthings, and for bed a bear's hide laid on the ground. Many tribes were such lawless wanderers that they knew not the meaning of home, and all hated the confinement of walled towns or cities, which they likened to prisons.

Civil Institutions and Government.—Every tribe had its nobles, freemen, freedmen, and slaves. When there was a king, he was elected from a royal family,—the traditional descendants of the divine Woden. All freemen had equal rights and a personal voice in the government; the freedman or peasant was allowed to bear arms, but not to vote; the slave was classed with the beast as the absolute property of his owner.

The Land belonging to a tribe was divided into districts, hundreds, and marks. The inhabitants of a mark were usually kindred, who dwelt on scattered homesteads and held its unoccupied lands in

common. The mark and the hundred, as well as the district, had each its own stated open-air assembly, where were settled the petty local disputes; its members sat together in the tribal assembly, and fought side by side in battle (compare with Greeks, *Anc. Peo.*, p. 192).

The General Assembly of the tribe was also held in the open air, near some sacred tree, at new or full moon. Hither flocked all the freemen in full armor. The night was spent in noisy discussion and festive carousal. As the great ox-horns of ale or mead were passed from hand to hand, measures of gravest importance were adopted by a ringing clash of weapons or rejected with cries and groans, till the whole forest resounded with the tumult. When the din became intolerable, silence was proclaimed in the name of the gods. The next day the few who were still sober reconsidered the night's debate, and gave a final decision.

The Family was the unit of German society. Every household was a little republic, its head being responsible to the community for its acts. The person and the home were sacred, and no law could seize a man in his own house; in extreme cases, his well might be choked up, and his dwelling fired or unroofed, but no one presumed to break open his door. As each family redressed its own wrongs, a slain kinsman was an appeal to every member for vengeance. The bloody complications to which this system led were in later times mitigated by the *weregeld*, a legal tariff of compensations by which even a murderer (if not willful) might "stop the feud" by paying a prescribed sum to the injured family (p. 42).

Fellowship in Arms.—The stubbornness with which the German resisted personal coercion was equalled by his zeal as a voluntary follower. From him came the idea of giving service for reward, which afterward expanded into feudalism (p. 102), and influenced European society for hundreds of years. In time of war, young freemen were wont to bind themselves together under a chosen leader, whom they hoisted on a shield, and thus, amid the clash of arms and smoke of sacrifice, formally adopted as their chief. Henceforth they rendered him an unswerving devotion. On the field they were his body-guard, and in peace they lived upon his bounty, sharing in the rewards of victory. For a warrior to return alive from a battle in which his leader was slain was a lifelong disgrace.—These voluntary unions formed the strength of the army. The renown of a successful chief spread to other tribes; presents and embassies were sent to him; his followers multiplied, and his conquests extended until, at last,—as in the Saxon invasions of England,—he won for himself a kingdom, and made princes of his bravest liegemen.

The Germans fought with clubs, lances, axes, arrows, and spears. They roused themselves to action with a boisterous war-song, increas-

ing the frightful clamor by placing their hollow shields before their faces. Metal armor and helmets were scarce, and shields were made of wood or platted twigs.¹ Yet when Julius Cæsar crossed the Rhine, even his iron-clad legions did not daunt these sturdy warriors, who boasted that they upheld the heavens with their lances, and had



ELEVATING ON THE SHIELD.

not slept under a roof for years. They fiercely resisted the encroachments of their southern invaders, and when, at the close of the 2d century A. D., the emperor Commodus bought with gold the peace he could not win with the sword, he found that one tribe alone had taken fifty thousand, and another one hundred thousand, Roman prisoners.

The Teutonic Religion encouraged bravery and even recklessness in battle, for it taught that only those who fell by the sword could enter Walhalla, the palace of the great god Woden, whither they

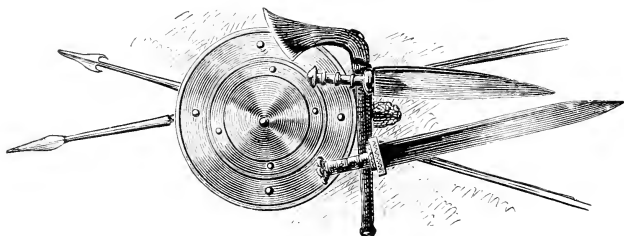
¹ What they lacked in armor they made up in pluck and endurance. When the Cimbri invaded Italy by way of the Tyrol (102 B. C.), they stripped their huge bodies and plunged into the frozen snow, or, sitting on their gandy shields, coasted down the dangerous descents with shouts of savage laughter, while the Romans in the passes below looked on in wondering dismay.

mounted on the rainbow, and where they fought and feasted forever. Those who died of illness or old age went to a land of ice and fogs. The gods—including the sun, moon, and other powers of nature—were worshiped in sacred groves, on heaths and holy mountains, or under single gigantic trees. Human sacrifices were sometimes offered; but the favorite victim, as in ancient Persia, was a horse, the flesh of which was cooked and eaten by the worshipers. In later times the eating of horseflesh became a mark of distinction between heathen and Christian. Our week-days perpetuate the names under which some of the chief Teutonic gods were known. Thus we have the *Sun-day*, the *Moon-day*, *Tu's day*, *Woden's day*, *Thor's day*, *Freya-day*, and *Sæter-day*.

Agriculture, Arts, and Letters.—Among the forests and the marshes of Germany, the Romans found cultivated fields and rich pastures. There were neither roads nor bridges, but for months in the year the great rivers were frozen so deeply that an army could pass on the ice. From the iron in the mountains the men made domestic, farming, and war utensils, and from the flax in the field the women spun and wove garments. There were rude plows for the farm, chariots for religious rites, and cars for the war-march; but beyond these few simple arts, the Germans were little better than savages.—The time of Christ was near. Over four centuries had passed since the brilliant age of Pericles in Athens, and three centuries since the founding of the Alexandrian library; Virgil and Horace had laid down their pens, and Livy was still at work on his closely written parchments; Rome, rich in the splendor of the Augustan age, was founding libraries, establishing museums, and bringing forth poets, orators, and statesmen; yet the great nation whose descendants were to include Goethe, Shakspeare, and Mendelssohn, had not a native book, knew nothing of writing, and shouted its savage war-song to the uproar of rude drums and great blasts on the painted horns of a wild bull.

The Germans in Later Times.—Before even the era of the Great Migration (Anc. Peo., p. 266), the fifty tribes had become united in vast confederations, chief among which were the *Saxons*, *Allemanni*, *Burgundians*, *Goths*, *Franks*, *Vandals*, and *Longobards* (Lombards). Led sometimes by their hard forest fare, sometimes by the love of adventure, they constantly sent forth their surplus population to attack and pillage foreign lands. For centuries Germany was like a hive whence ever and anon swarmed vast hordes of hardy warriors, who set out with their families and goods to find a new home. Legions of German soldiers were constantly enlisted to fight under the Roman eagles. The veterans returned home with new habits of thought and life. Their stories of the magnificence and grandeur of the Mistress of the World excited the imagination and kindled the ardor of their listeners. Gradually the Roman civilization and the glory of the Roman

name accomplished what the sword had failed to effect. Around the forts along the Rhine, cities grew up, such as Mayence, Worms, Baden, Cologne, and Strasburg. The frontier provinces slowly took on the habits of luxurious Rome. Merchants came thither with the rich fabrics and ornaments of the south and east, and took thence amber, fur, and human hair,—for, now that so many Germans had acquired fame and power in the imperial army, yellow wigs had become the Roman fashion. Commerce thus steadily filtered down through the northern forests, until at last it reached the Baltic Sea.



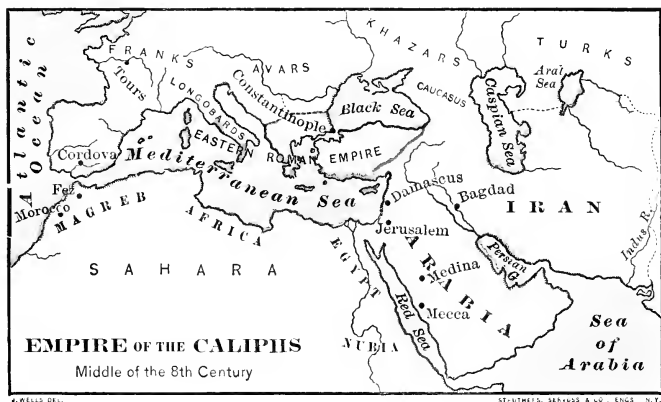
GROUP OF ANCIENT ARMS.

RISE OF THE SARACENS OR ARABS.

Mohammed.—Now for the first time since the overthrow of Carthage (Anc. Peo., p. 235), a Semitic people comes to the front in history. Early in the 7th century there arose in Arabia a reformer named Mohammed,¹ who

¹ Mohammed, or Mahomet, was born at Mecca about 570 A. D. Left an orphan at an early age, he became a camel-driver, and finally entered the service of a rich widow named Khadijah. She was so pleased with his fidelity, that she offered him her hand, although she was forty, and he but twenty-five, years old. He was now free to indulge his taste for meditation, and often retired to the desert, spending whole nights in revery. At the age of forty—a mystic number in the East—he declared that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him in a vision, commissioning him to preach a new faith. Khadijah was his first convert. After a time he publicly renounced idol-worship, and proclaimed himself a prophet. Persecution waxed hot, and he was forced to flee for his life. This era is known among the Moslems as the Hegira. Mohammed now took refuge in a cave. His enemies came to the mouth, but, seeing a spider's web across the entrance, passed on in pursuit. The fugitive secured an asylum in Medina, where the new faith spread rapidly, and Mohammed soon found himself at the head of an army. Full of courage and enthusiasm, he aroused his followers to a fanatical devotion. Thus, in the battle of Muta, Jaafer,

taught a new religion. Its substance was, "There is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet." Converts were made by force of arms. "Paradise," said Mohammed, "will be found in the shadow of the crossing of swords." The only choice given the vanquished was the Koran, tribute, or death. Before the close of his stormy life (632), the green-robed warrior-prophet had subdued the scattered tribes of Arabia, destroyed their idols, and united the people in one nation.



The Caliphs, or successors of Mohammed, rapidly followed up the triumphs of the new faith. Syria and Palestine were conquered. When Jerusalem opened its gates, Omar, the second caliph, stern and ascetic, rode thither from Medina upon a red-haired camel, carrying a bag of rice, one of dates, and a leathern bottle of water. The mosque bear-

when his right hand was struck off, seized the banner in his left, and, when the left was severed, still embraced the flag with the bleeding stumps, keeping his place till he was pierced by fifty wounds.—Mohammed made known his doctrines in fragments, which his followers wrote upon sheep-bones and palm-leaves. His successor, Abou Beker, collected these so-called revelations into the Koran,—the sacred book of the Mohammedans.

ing his name still stands on the site of the ancient Temple. Persia was subdued, and the religion of Zoroaster nearly extinguished. Forty-six years after Mohammed's flight from Mecca, the scimiters of the Saracens were seen from the walls of Constantinople. During one siege of seven years (668-675), and another of thirteen months, nothing saved new Rome but the torrents of Greek fire¹ that poured from its battlements. Meanwhile, Egypt fell, and, after the capture of Alexandria, the flames of its four thousand baths² were fed for six months with the priceless manuscripts from the library of the Ptolemies. Still westward through northern Africa the Arabs made their way, until at last their leader spurred his horse into the waves of the Atlantic, exclaiming, "Be my witness, God of Mohammed, that earth is wanting to my courage, rather than my zeal in thy service!"

Saracens invade Europe.—In 711 the turbaned Moslems crossed the Strait of Gibraltar. Spain was quickly overrun, and a Moorish³ kingdom finally established that lasted until the year of the discovery of America (p. 99). The Mohammedan leader boasted that he would yet preach in the Vatican at Rome, and capture Constantinople, then, having overthrown the Roman Empire and Christianity, he would return to Damascus and lay his victorious sword at the feet of the caliph. Soon the fearless riders of the desert poured through the passes of the Pyrenees and devastated southern Gaul. But on the plain of *Tours*

¹ This consisted of naphtha, sulphur, and pitch. It was often hurled in red-hot, hollow balls of iron, or blown through copper tubes fancifully shaped in imitation of savage monsters, that seemed to vomit forth a stream of liquid fire.

² Gibbon rejects this story: but the current statement is that Omar declared, "If the manuscripts agree with the Koran, they are useless; if they disagree, they should be destroyed."

³ The Saracens in Spain are usually called Moors,—a term originally applied to the dark-colored natives of northern Africa.

(732) the Saracen host met the Franks (p. 25). On the seventh day of the furious struggle the Cross triumphed over the Crescent, and Europe was saved. Charles, the leader of the Franks, received henceforth the name of Martel (the hammer) for the valor with which he pounded the



CHARLES MARTEL AT THE BATTLE OF TOURS.

Infidels on that memorable field. The Moslems never ventured northward again, and ultimately retired behind the barriers of the Pyrenees.

Extent of the Arab Dominion.—Exactly a century had now elapsed since the death of Mohammed, and the Saracen rule reached from the Indus to the Pyrenees. No empire of antiquity had such an extent. Only Greek fire on the East, and German valor on the West, had prevented the Moslem power from girdling the Mediterranean.

Saracen Divisions.—For a time this vast empire held

together, and one caliph was obeyed alike in Spain and in Sinde. But disputes arose concerning the succession, and the empire was divided between the *Ommiades*,—descendants of Omar,—who reigned at Cordova, and the *Abbassides*,—descendants of the prophet's uncle,—who located their capital at Bagdad.

The year 800, when Charlemagne was crowned emperor at Rome (p. 27), saw two rival emperors among the Christians, and two rival caliphs among the Mohammedans. As the Germans had before this pressed into the Roman Empire, so now the Turks invaded the Arab Empire. The Caliph of Bagdad formed his body-guard of Turks,—a policy that proved as fatal as enlisting the Goths into the legions of Rome, for the Turks eventually stripped the caliphs of their possessions in Asia and Africa. As the Teutons took the religion of the Romans, so also the Turks accepted the faith of the Arabs; and as the Franks ultimately became the valiant supporters of Christianity, so the Turks became the ardent apostles of the Koran.

Saracen Civilization.—The furious fanaticism of the Arabs early changed into a love for the arts of peace. Omar, with his leathern bottle and bag of dates, was followed by men who reigned in palaces decorated with arabesques and adorned with flower-gardens and fountains. The caliphs at Cordova and Bagdad became rivals in luxury and learning, as well as in politics and religion. Under the fostering care of Haroun al Raschid, the hero of the “Arabian Nights” and contemporary of Charlemagne, Bagdad became the home of poets and scholars. The Moors in Spain erected structures whose magnificence and grandeur are yet attested by the ruins of the Mosque of Cordova and the Palace of the Alhambra. The streets of the cities were paved and lighted. The houses were frescoed and carpeted, warmed in winter by furnaces, and cooled in summer by perfumed air.

Amid the ignorance which enveloped Europe during the dark ages, the Saracen Empire was dotted over with schools, to which students resorted from all parts of the world. There were colleges in Mongolia, Tartary, Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Morocco, Fez, and Spain. The

vizier of a sultan consecrated 200,000 pieces of gold to found a college at Bagdad. A physician declined to go to Bokhara, at the invitation of the sultan, on the plea that his private library would make four hundred camel-loads. Great public libraries were collected,—one at Cairo being said to number 100,000 volumes, and the one of the Spanish caliphs, 600,000.

In science the Arabs adopted the inductive method of Aristotle (Anc. Peo., p. 176), pushing their experiments into almost every line of study. They originated chemistry, discovering alcohol and nitric and sulphuric acids. They understood the laws of falling bodies, of specific gravity, of the mechanical powers, and the general principles of light. They applied the pendulum to the reckoning of time; ascertained the size of the earth by measuring a degree of latitude; made catalogues of the stars; introduced the game of chess; employed in mathematics the Indian method of numeration; gave to algebra and trigonometry their modern forms; brought cotton manufacture into Europe; invented the printing of calico with wooden blocks; and forged the Damascus and Toledo scimiters, whose temper is still the wonder of the world.

RISE OF THE FRANKISH EMPIRE.

The Franks, a German race, laid the foundation of France and Germany, and during nearly four centuries their history is that of both these countries. The conversion to Christianity of their chieftain *Clovis* was the turning-point in their career. In the midst of a great battle, he invoked the God of Clotilda, his wife, and vowed, if victorious, to embrace her faith. The tide of disaster turned, and the grateful king, with three thousand of his bravest warriors, was soon after baptized at Rheims (496). The whole power of the Church was now enlisted in his cause, and he rapidly pushed his triumphal arms to the Pyrenees. He fixed his capital at Paris, and established the *Merovingian*, or first Frankish dynasty (Brief Hist. France, p. 13).

The Descendants of Clovis were at first wicked, then weak, until finally all power fell into the hands of the prime minister, or Mayor of the Palace. We have already heard

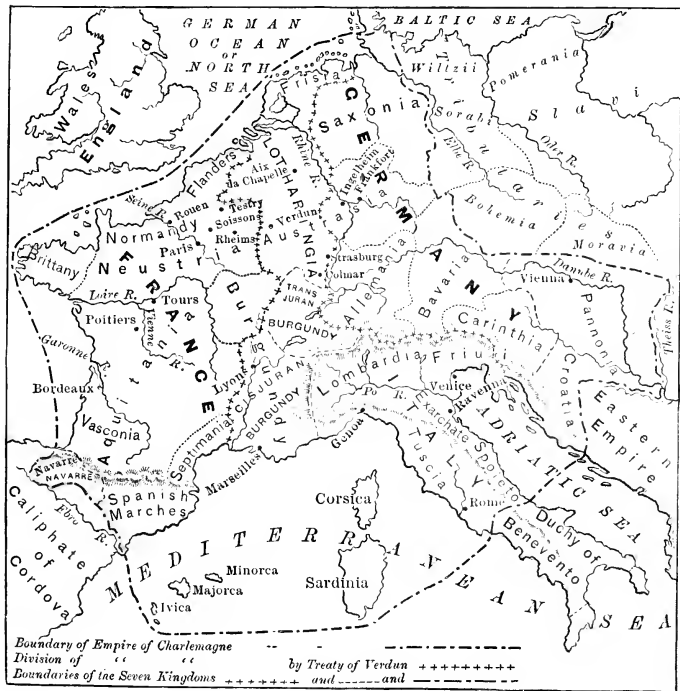
of one of these mayors, Charles Martel, at Tours. His son, *Pepin the Short*, after his accession to office, was determined to be king in name as well as in authority. He deposed Childeric,—the last of the “do-nothing” monarchs,—and Pope Stephen the Third confirmed, by his apostolical authority, both the deposition and the Carolingian claim to the throne. This done, Pepin was lifted on a shield, and made king. Thus the *Carlovingian*, or second Frankish dynasty, was established (752). At the request of the Pope, then hard pressed by the Lombards, Pepin crossed the Alps and conquered the province of Ravenna, which he gave to the Holy See. This donation was the origin of the temporal power of the Pope, which lasted 1115 years.

With Charlemagne (Charles the Great), Pepin’s son, began a new era in the history of Europe. His plan was to unite the fragments of the old Roman Empire. To effect this, he used two powerful sentiments,—patriotism and religion. Thus, while he cherished the institutions which the Teutons loved, he protected the Church, and carried the cross at the head of his army. He undertook fifty-three expeditions against twelve different nations. Gauls, Saxons, Danes, Saracens,¹—all felt the prowess of his arms. Entering Italy, he defeated the Lombards, and placed upon his own head their famous iron crown. After thirty-three years of bloody war, his scepter was acknowledged from the German Ocean to the Adriatic, and from the Channel to the Lower Danube. His renown reached the far East, and Haroun al Raschid sought his friendship, sending him an

¹ While Charlemagne’s army, on its return from Spain, was passing through the narrow pass of Roncesvalles, the rear-guard was attacked by the Basques. According to tradition, Roland, the Paladin, long refused to blow his horn for aid, and only with his dying breath signalled to Charlemagne, who returned too late to save his gallant comrades. “Centuries have passed since that fatal day, but the Basque peasant still sings of Roland and Charlemagne, and still the traveler seems to see the long line of white turbans and swarthy faces winding slowly through the woods, and of Arab spear-heads glittering in the sun.”

elephant (an animal never before seen by the Franks), and a clock which struck the hours.

Charlemagne crowned Emperor.—On Christmas Day, 800, as Charlemagne was bending in prayer before the high altar of St. Peter's at Rome, Pope Leo unexpectedly



MAP OF THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

placed on his head the crown of the Cæsars. The Western Empire was thus restored; the old empire was finally divided; there were two emperors,—one at Rome, and one at Constantinople; and from this time the Roman emperors were "Kings of the Franks." They lived very little at Rome,

however, and spoke German, Latin being the language only of religion and government.



CHARLEMAGNE CROWNED.

Government.—Charlemagne sought to organize by law the various peoples he had conquered by the sword. His vast empire was divided into districts governed by counts. Royal delegates visited each district four times a year, to redress grievances and administer justice. Diets took the place of the old German armed assemblies, and a series of *capitularies* was issued, containing the laws and the advice of the emperor. But the work of Charlemagne's life perished with him.

A Division of the Frankish Empire.—His feeble son Louis quickly dissipated this vast inheritance among his children. They quarreled over their respective shares, and after Louis's death fought out their dispute on the field of *Fontenay*. This dreadful "Battle of the Brothers" was fol-

lowed by the *Treaty of Verdun* (843), which divided the empire among them.

Beginnings of France and Germany.—Lothaire's kingdom was called after him Lotharingia, and a part of it is still known as Lorraine. Louis's kingdom was termed East Frankland, but the word *Deutsch* (German) soon came into use, and Germany in 1843 celebrated its 1000th anniversary, dating from the Treaty of Verdun. Charles's kingdom was styled West Frankland (Lat. *Francia*, whence the word France); its monarch still clung to his Teutonic dress and manners, but the separation from Germany was fairly accomplished; the two countries spoke different languages, and Charles the Bald is ranked as the first king of France.

Thus, during the 9th century, the map of Europe began to take on something of its present appearance, and for the first time we may venture to use the geographical divisions now familiar to us, though they were still far from having their present meaning.

Charlemagne and his Court.—In person, dress, speech, and tone of mind, Charlemagne was a true German. Large, erect, muscular, with a clear eye and dignified but gracious manner, his shrill voice and short neck were forgotten in the general grandeur of his presence. Keen to detect, apt to understand, profound to grasp, and quick to decide, he impressed all who knew him with a sense of his power. Like his rude ancestors of centuries before, he was hardy in his



CHARLEMAGNE.

habits, and unconcerned about his dress; but, unlike them, he was strictly temperate in food and drink. Drunkenness he abhorred. In the industrial schools which he established, his own daughters were taught to work, and the garments he commonly wore were woven by their hands. He discouraged extravagance in his courtiers, and once when hunting,—he in simple Frankish dress and sheepskin cloak, they in silk and tinsel-embroidered robes,—he led them through mire and brambles in the midst of a furious storm of wind and sleet, and afterward obliged them to dine in their torn and bedraggled fineries. Twice in his life he wore a foreign dress, and that was at Rome, where he assumed a robe of purple and gold, encircled his brow with jewels, and decorated even his sandals with precious stones. His greatest pride was in his sword, Joyeuse, the handle of which bore his signet, and he was wont to say, “With my sword I maintain all to which I affix my seal.” Generous to his friends, indulgent to his children, and usually placable to his enemies, his only acts of cruelty were perpetrated on the Saxons. They, true to the Teutonic passion for liberty, for thirty-three years fought and struggled against him; and, though by his orders forty-five hundred were beheaded in one day, they continued to rebel till hopelessly subdued.

The Imperial Palaces were magnificent, and the one at Aix-la-Chapelle was so luxurious that people called it “Little Rome.” It contained extensive halls, galleries, and baths for swimming,—an art in which Charlemagne excelled,—mosaic pavements and porphyry pillars from Ravenna, and a college, library, and theater. There were gold and silver tables, sculptured drinking-cups, and elaborately carved wainscoting, while the courtiers, dressed in gay and richly wrought robes, added to the brilliancy of the surroundings. Charlemagne gave personal attention to his different estates; he prescribed what trees and flowers should grow in his gardens, what meat and vegetables should be kept in store, and even how the stock and poultry should be fed and housed.

The College at Aix-la-Chapelle was presided over by Alcuin, an Anglo-Saxon monk whom Charlemagne had invited to his court,—for he surrounded himself with scholars rather than warriors. With his learned favorites and royal household the Great King devoted himself to science, belles-lettres, music, and the languages, and became, next to Alcuin, the best-educated man of the age. It was an arousing of literature from a sleep of centuries, and while Alcuin explained the theories of Pythagoras, Aristotle, and Plato, or quoted Homer, Virgil, and Pliny, the delighted listeners were fired with a passion for learning. In their enthusiasm they took the names of their classical favorites, and Homer, Pindar, Virgil, Horace, and Calliope sat down together in the Frankish court, the king himself appearing as the royal

Hebrew, David. Besides this court school, Charlemagne organized at Paris the first European university, established academies throughout the empire, and required that every monastery which he founded or endowed should support a school. He encouraged the copying of ancient manuscripts, and corrected the text of the Greek gospels. Like Pliny, he had books read to him at meals,—St. Augustine being his favorite author,—and, like Pisistratus, he collected the scattered fragments of the ancient national poetry. He even began a German grammar, an experiment which was not repeated for hundreds of years. Yet, though he mastered Latin, read Greek and some oriental languages, delighted in astronomy, attempted poetry, and was learned in rhetoric and logic, this great king stumbled on the simple art of writing; and, though he kept his tablets under his pillow that he might press every waking moment into service, the hand that could so easily wield the ponderous iron lance was conquered by the pen.

Wonderful indeed was the electricity of this powerful nature, the like of which had not been seen since the day of Julius Cæsar, and was not to reappear until the day of Charles V. But no one man can make a civilization. “In vain,” says Duruy, “did Charlemagne kindle the flame; it was only a passing torch in the midst of a profound night. In vain did he strive to create commerce and trace with his own hand the plan of a canal to connect the Danube and the Rhine; the ages of commerce and industry were yet far distant. In vain did he unite Germany into one vast empire; even while he lived he felt it breaking in his hands. And this vast and wise organism, this revived civilization, all disappeared with him who called it forth.”

RISE OF MODERN NATIONS.

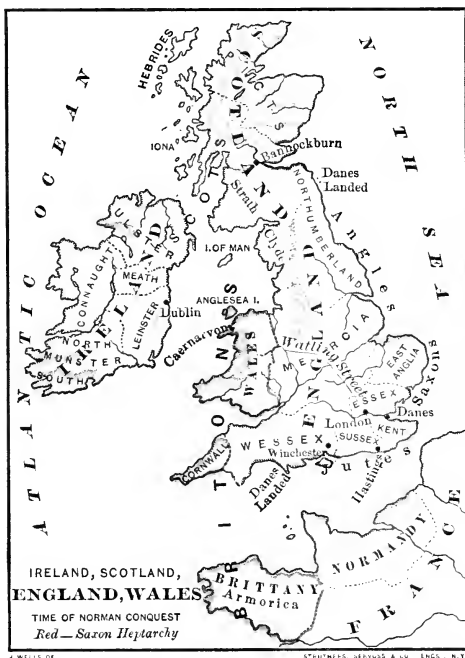
We now enter upon the early political history of the principal European nations, and shall see how, amid the darkness of the middle ages, the foundations of the modern states were slowly laid.

I. ENGLAND.

The Four Conquests of England.—(1) *Roman Conquest.*—About a century after Cæsar's invasion, Agricola reduced Britain to a Roman province. Walls were built to keep back the Highland Celts; paved roads were constructed; fortified towns sprang up; the Britons became Christians;

and the young natives learned to talk Latin, wear the toga, and frequent the bath.

(2) *Anglo-Saxon Conquest*.—While Alaric was thundering at the gates of Rome (Anc. Peo., p. 267), the legions were recalled to Italy. The wild Celts of the north now swarmed over the deserted walls, and ravaged the country. The Britons, in their extremity, appealed to Horsa and Hen-



THE FOUR CONQUESTS OF ENGLAND.

gist, two German adventurers then cruising off their coast. These drove back the Celts, rewarding themselves by seizing the land they had delivered. Fresh bands of Teutons—chiefly Angles (English) and Saxons—followed, driving the remaining Britons into Wales. The petty Pagan kingdoms

which the Germans established (known as the Saxon Heph-tarchy) were continually at war, but Christianity was reintroduced by St. Augustine,¹ and they were finally united in one nation (827) by King *Egbert*, a contemporary and friend of Charlemagne.

(3) *Danish Conquest*.—During the 9th century, England, like France (p. 48) and Germany, was ravaged by hordes of northern pirates. In their light boats they ascended the rivers, and, landing, seized horses and scoured the country, to plunder and slay. Mercy seemed to them a crime, and they destroyed all they could not remove. The Danish invaders were finally beaten back by Egbert's grandson,² *Alfred the Great* (871–901), and order was restored, so that, according to the old chroniclers, a bracelet of gold could be left hanging by the roadside without any one daring to touch it. A century later the Northmen came in greater numbers, bent on conquering the country, and the Danish king *Canute* (Knut)³ won the English crown (1017).

(4) *Norman Conquest*.—The English soon tired of the reckless rule of Canute's sons, and called to the throne *Edward the Confessor* (1042), who belonged to the old

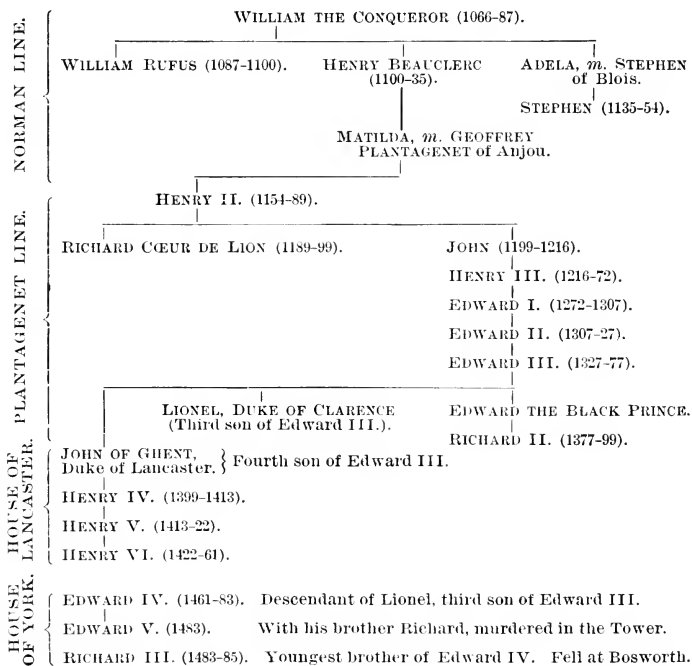
¹ Gregory, when a deacon, was once attracted by the beauty of some light-haired boys in the Roman slave-market. Being told that they were Angles, he replied, "Not Angles, but angels." When he became Pope, he remembered the fair captives, and sent a band of monks under St. Augustine as missionaries to England. They landed on the same spot where Hengist had nearly 150 years before.

² The early chronicles abound in romantic stories of this "best of England's kings." While a fugitive from the Danes, he took refuge in the hut of a swineherd. One day the housewife had him turn some cakes that were baking upon the hearth. Absorbed in thought, the young king forgot his task. When the good woman returned, finding the cakes burned, she roundly scolded him for his carelessness.

³ Many beautiful legends illustrate the character of this wonderful man. One day his courtiers told him that his power was so great that even the sea obeyed him. To rebuke this foolish flattery, the king seated himself by the shore, and ordered the waves to retire. But the tide rose higher and higher, until finally the surf dashed over his person. Turning to his flatterers, he said, "Ye see now how weak is the power of kings and of all men. Honor then God only, and serve Him, for Him do all things obey." On going back to Winchester, he hung his crown over the crucifix on the high altar, and never wore it again.

Saxon line. On his death, Harold was chosen king. But William, Duke of Normandy (p. 50), claimed that Edward had promised him the succession, and that his cousin, Harold, had ratified the pledge. A powerful Norman army accordingly invaded England. Harold was slain in the battle of *Hastings*, and on Christmas Day, 1066, William was crowned in Westminster Abbey as King of England.

The following table contains the names of the English kings from the time of the Conquest to the end of the middle ages. The limits of this history forbid a description of their separate reigns, and permit only a consideration of the events that, during this period of four centuries, were conspicuous in the "making of England."



Results of the Norman Conquest.—William took advantage of repeated revolts of the English to conquer the nation thoroughly, to establish the feudal system¹ in England, and to confiscate most of the large domains and confer



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

them upon his followers. Soon every office in Church and State was filled by the Normans. Castles were erected, where the new nobles lived and lorded it over their poor Saxon dependants. Crowds of Norman workmen and traders flocked across the Channel. Thus there were two peoples living in England side by side. But the Normans were kinsfolk of the English, being Teutons with only a French veneer,

and the work of union began speedily. Henry I., the Conqueror's son, married the niece of Edgar Atheling,—the last of the Saxon princes; while, from the reign of Henry II., ties of kindred and trade fast made Normans and Englishmen indistinguishable. Finally, in Edward I., England had a king who was English at heart.

At first there were two languages spoken; the Norman being the fashionable tongue, and the Saxon the common

¹ The pupil should here carefully read the sections on feudalism, etc., p. 102, in order to understand the various feudal terms used in the text.

speech; but slowly, as the two peoples combined, the two languages coalesced.

From time to time many of the English took to the woods and lived as outlaws, like the famous Robin Hood in the days of Richard I. But the sturdy Saxon independence and the Norman skill and learning gradually blended, giving to the English race new life and enterprise, a firmer government, more systematic laws, and more permanent institutions.

The Saxon weapon was the battle-ax; the Norman gentleman fought on horseback with the spear, and the footman with bow and arrow. Less than three centuries found the English yeoman on the field of Crécy (p. 55), under Edward III. and the Black Prince, overwhelming the French with shafts from their longbows, while the English knight was armed *cap-a-pie*, with helmet on head, and lance in hand.

William, though King of England, still held Normandy, and hence remained a vassal of the King of France. This complication of English and French interests became a fruitful source of strife. The successors of Hugh Capet (p. 50) were forced to fight a vassal more powerful than themselves, while the English sovereigns sought to dismember and finally to conquer France. Long and bloody wars were waged. Nearly five centuries elapsed before the English monarchs gave up their last stronghold in that country, and were content to be merely British kings.

Growth of Constitutional Liberty.—1. *Runnymede and Magna Charta.*—William the Conqueror easily curbed the powerful English vassals whom he created. But during the disturbances of succeeding reigns the barons acquired great power, and their castles became mere robbers' nests, whence they plundered the common people without mercy. The people now sided with the Crown for protection. Henry II. established order, reformed the law-courts, organ-

ized an army, destroyed many of the castles of the tyrannical nobles, and created new barons, who, being English, were ready to make common cause with the nation. Unfortunately, Henry alienated the affections of his people by his long quarrel with Thomas à Becket, who, as a loyal English priest, stood up for the rights of the Church,—through the middle ages the refuge of the people,—and opposed to the death the increasing power of the Norman king. Henry's son John brought matters to a crisis by his brutality and exactions. He imposed taxes at pleasure, wronged the poor, and plundered the rich.¹ At last the patience of peasant and noble alike was exhausted, and the whole nation rose up in insurrection. The barons marched with their forces against the king, and at *Runnymede* (1215) compelled him to grant the famous Great Charter (*Magna Charta*).

Henceforth the king had no right to demand money when he pleased, nor to imprison and punish whom he pleased. He was to take money only when the barons granted the privilege for public purposes, and no freeman was to be punished except when his countrymen judged him guilty of crime. The courts were to be open to all, and justice was not to be "sold, refused, or delayed." The serf, or villein, was to have his plow free from seizure. The Church was secured against the interference of the king. No class was neglected, but each obtained some cherished right.

Magna Charta ever since has been the foundation of English liberty, and, as the kings were always trying to break it, they have been compelled, during succeeding reigns, to confirm its provisions thirty-six times.

2. *House of Commons*.—Henry III., foolishly fond of foreign favorites, yielded to their advice, and lavished upon

¹ At one time, it is said, he threw into prison a wealthy Jew, who refused to give him an enormous sum of money, and pulled out a tooth every day until the tortured Hebrew paid the required amount.

them large sums of money. Once more the barons rose in arms, and under the lead of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester,—a Frenchman by birth, but an Englishman in feeling,—defeated the king at *Lewes*. Earl Simon thereupon called together the Parliament, summoning, besides the barons, two knights from each county, and two citizens from each city or borough, to represent the freeholders (1265). From this beginning, the English Parliament soon took on the form it has since retained, of two assemblies,—the House of Lords and the House of Commons. By degrees it was established that the Commons should have the right of petition for redress of grievances, and the sole power of voting taxes.

The 13th century is thus memorable in English history for the granting of Magna Charta and the forming of the House of Commons.

Conquest of Ireland begun.—Henry II., having obtained permission from the Pope to invade Ireland, authorized an army of adventurers to overrun that island. In 1171 he visited Ireland, and his sovereignty was generally acknowledged. Henceforth the country was under English rule, but it remained in disorder, the battle-ground of Irish chiefs, and Norman-descended lords who became as savage and lawless as those whom they had conquered.

Conquest of Wales (1283).—The Celts had long preserved their liberty among the mountains of Wales and Scotland. Edward I.'s ambition was to rule over the whole of the island. When Llewellyn, the Welsh chieftain, refused to yield him the usual homage, he invaded the country and annexed it to England. To propitiate the Welsh, he promised them a native-born king who could not speak a word of English, and thereupon presented them his son, born a few days before in the Welsh castle of Caernarvon. The young

Edward was afterward styled the Prince of Wales,—a title ever since borne by the sovereign's oldest son.

Conquest of Scotland.—Edward I., having been chosen umpire between two claimants for the Scottish throne,—Robert Bruce and John Baliol,—decided in favor of the latter. Both had agreed to pay homage to the English monarch as their feudal lord. The Scots, impatient of their vassalage, revolted, whereupon Edward took possession of the country as a forfeited fief (1296). Again the Scots rose under the patriot *William Wallace*; but he was defeated, taken to London, and brutally executed. *Robert Bruce* was the next leader. Edward marched against him, but died in sight of Scotland. The English soldiers, however, harried the land, and drove Bruce from one hiding-place to another. Almost in despair, the patriot lay one day sleepless on his bed, where he watched a spider jumping to attach its thread to a wall. Six times it failed, but succeeded on the seventh. Bruce, encouraged by this simple incident, resolved to try again. Success came. Castle after castle fell into his hands, until only Stirling remained. Edward II., going to its relief, met Bruce at *Bannockburn* (1314). The Scottish army was defended by pits, having sharp stakes at the bottom, and covered at the top with sticks and turf. The English knights, galloping to the attack, plunged into these hidden holes. In the midst of the confusion a body of sutlers appeared on a distant hill, and the dispirited English, mistaking them for a new army, fled in dismay.

Scottish Independence was acknowledged (1328).¹ After

¹ It is noticeable that there existed a constant alliance of Scotland and France. Whenever, during the 14th and 15th centuries, war broke out between France and England, the Scots made a diversion by attacking England, and their soldiers often took service in the French armies on the continent. So if we learn that, at any time during this long period, France and England were fighting, it is pretty safe to conclude that along the borders of England and Scotland there were plundering-raids and skirmishes.

this, many wars arose between Scotland and England, but Scotland was never in danger of being conquered.

The Hundred-Years' War with France was the event of the 14th and the first half of the 15th century (p. 54).

Wars of the Roses (1455–85).—About the middle of the 15th century a struggle concerning the succession to the English throne arose between the Houses of York and Lancaster, the former being descended from the third, and the latter from the fourth, son of Edward III. (p. 34). A civil war ensued, known as the Wars of the Roses, since the adherents of the House of York wore, as a badge, a white rose, and those of Lancaster, a red one. The contest lasted thirty years, and twelve pitched battles were fought. During this war the House of York seated three kings upon the throne. But the last of these, Richard III., a brutal tyrant whom prose and poetry¹ have combined to condemn, was slain on the field of *Bosworth*, and the red rose placed the crown on the head of its representative, Henry VII. Thus ended the *Plantagenet Line*, which had ruled England for three centuries; the new house was called the *Tudor Line*, from Henry's family name.

The Result of this civil war was the triumph of the kingly power over that of the aristocracy. It was a war of the nobles and their military retainers. Except in the immediate march of the armies, the masses pursued their industries as usual. Men plowed and sowed, bought and sold, as though it were a time of peace. Both sides protected the neutral citizens, but were bent on exterminating each other. No quarter was asked or given.² During the war, eighty princes of the blood and two hundred nobles

¹ Read Shakspeare's play, *Richard III.*

² When Edward IV. galloped over the field of battle after a victory, he would shout, "Spare the soldiers, but slay the gentlemen."

fell by the sword, and half the families of distinction were destroyed. The method of holding land was changed, and "landlord and tenant" took the place of "lord and vassal." The Earl of Warwick, whose powerful influence in seating and unseating monarchs won him the title of "The King-maker," was also "The Last of the Barons." The king henceforth had little check, and the succeeding monarchs ruled with an authority before unknown in English history. Constitutional liberty, which had been steadily growing since the day of Runnymede, now gave place to Tudor absolutism. The field of Bosworth, moreover, marked the downfall of feudalism; with its disappearance the middle ages came to an end.

EARLY ENGLISH CIVILIZATION.

The Anglo-Saxons.—The German invaders brought to England their old traits and customs, in which traces of Paganism lingered long after Christianity was formally adopted. Coming in separate bands, each fighting and conquering for itself, the most successful chieftains founded kingdoms. The royal power gradually increased, though always subject to the decisions of the *Witan*, composed of earls, prelates, and the leading thanes and clergy. The Witenagemot (Assembly of Wise Men), a modification of the ancient German Assembly, was held at the Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide festivals. This body could elect and depose the king, who was chosen from the royal family.¹

The *earls* or *dukes* represented the old German nobility; the *thanes* or gentry were attached to the king and nobles; and the *ceorls* or yeomen, freemen in name, were often semi-servile in obligations. Lowest of all, and not even counted in the population, was a host of *thralls*,—hapless slaves who were sold with the land and cattle, one slave equaling four oxen in value. A *ceorl* who had acquired "five hides² of land, church and kitchen, bell-house and burh-gate-seat, and special duty in the king's hall," or a merchant who had thrice crossed

¹ Every tribal king claimed descent from Woden. To the House of Cerdic, the founder of the West-Saxon dynasty, is traced the pedigree of Queen Victoria.

² The dimensions of a hide were perhaps about thirty acres. The burh was the home-yard and buildings, entered through a gate in the earth-wall inclosure.

the seas on his own account, might become a thane; and in certain cases a slave might earn his freedom.

Shires, Hundreds, and Tithings.—Ten Anglo-Saxon families made a tithing, and by a system of mutual police or *frank-pledge*, each one became bail for the good conduct of the other nine. Ten tithings made a hundred, names which soon came to stand for the soil on which they lived. The land conferred in individual estates was called *bokland* (book-land); that reserved for the public use was *folkland*.

The *weregeld* (life-money) and *witlgeld* (crime-money) continued in force, and covered nearly every possible crime, from the murder of a king to a bruise on a comrade's finger-nail. As part of the crime-money went to the Crown, it was a goodly source of royal income. The amount due increased with the rank of the injured party; thus, the weregeld of the West-Saxon king was six times that of the thane, and the thane's was four times that of the *ceorl*. The weregeld also settled the value of an oath in the law-courts: "A thane could outswear half a dozen *ceorls*; an earl could outswear a whole township." The word of the king was ordered to be taken without an oath. Some crimes, such as premeditated murder or perjury after theft, were inexpiable.

The Ordeals were used in cases of doubtful guilt. Sometimes a caldron of boiling water or a red-hot iron was brought before the court. The man of general good character was made to plunge his hand in the water or to carry the iron nine paces; but he of ill repute immersed his arm to the elbow, and was given an iron of treble weight. After three days he was declared guilty or innocent, according to the signs of perfect healing. Sometimes the accused was made to walk blindfolded and barefooted over red-hot plowshares; and sometimes he was bound hand and foot, and thrown into a pond, to establish his innocence or guilt, according as he sank or floated. Ordeals were formally abolished by the Church in the 13th century.

The Duel, in which the disputants or their champions fought, was transplanted from Normandy about the time of the Conquest; and the *Grand Assize*, the first establishment in regular legal form of trial by jury, was introduced by Henry II.

Commerce was governed by strict protective laws; and every purchase, even of food, had to be made before witnesses. If a man went to a distance to buy any article, he must first declare his intention to his neighbors; if he chanced to buy while absent, he must publish the fact on his return. Nothing could be legally bought or sold for three miles outside a city's walls, and the holder of wares whose purchase in open market could not be proved, not only forfeited the goods, but was obliged to establish his character for honesty before the legal inspector of sales. Judging from the laws, theft and smuggling, though punished with great severity, were prevalent crimes.

Solitary travelers were regarded with suspicion, and an early law declared that "if a man come from afar or a stranger go out of the highway, and he then neither shout nor blow a horn, he is to be accounted a thief, either to be slain or to be redeemed."



THE SCRIPTORIUM OF A MONASTERY.—A MONK ILLUMINATING A MANUSCRIPT.

Literature and the Arts flourished only in convents, where the patient monks wrought in gold, silver, and jewels, and produced exquisitely illuminated manuscripts. The name of "*The Venerable Bede*" (673-735), the most distinguished of Anglo-Saxon writers, is familiar to all readers of English history, and we recognize *Alcuin* (735-804) as the preceptor of Charlemagne. Alfred the Great, whom popular tradition invested with nearly every virtue, was a tireless student and writer.

Truthfulness, Respect for Woman, and Hospitality were the old wholesome German traits. The doors of the Anglo-Saxon hall were closed to none, known or unknown, who appeared worthy of entrance. The stranger was welcomed with the customary offer of water to wash his hands and feet, after which he gave up his arms and took his place at the family board. For two nights no questions were asked; after that his host was responsible for his character. In later times, a strange-comer who was neither armed, nor rich, nor a clerk, was obliged to enter and leave his host's house by daylight, nor was he allowed to remain out of his own tithing more than one night at a time.



HOUSE OF A NOBLEMAN (12TH CENTURY).

of tile mosaic. Its chief furniture was benches, which served as seats by day and for beds at night. A sack of straw and a straw pillow, with sheet, coverlet, and goatskin, laid on a bench or on the floor, furnished a sufficient couch for even a royal Saxon. A stool or chair covered with a rug or cushion marked the master's place. The table was a long board placed upon trestles, and laid aside when not in use. A hole in the roof gave outlet to the clouds of smoke from the open fire on the floor. The bowers furnished private sitting and bed rooms for the ladies of the house, the master, and distinguished guests. Here the Anglo-Saxon dames carded, spun, and wove, and wrought the gold embroideries that made their needlework famous throughout Europe. The straw bed lay on a bench in a curtained recess, and the furniture was scanty, for in those times nothing which could not be easily hidden was safe from plunderers. The little windows (called eye-holes) were closed by a wooden lattice, thin horn, or linen, for glass windows were as yet scarcely known. A rude candle stuck upon a spike was used at night.—The women were fond of flowers and gardens. At the great feasts they passed the ale and mead, and distributed gifts—the spoils of victory—to the warrior-guests.¹ They



EARLY ENGLISH BENCH OR BED.

¹ The master was called the *hlaf-ord* (loaf-owner), and the mistress *hlaf-dig* (loaf

were as hard mistresses as the old Roman matrons, and their slaves were sometimes scourged to death by their orders.

Dress.—The men usually went bareheaded, with flowing beard, and long hair parted in the middle. A girdled tunic, loose short trousers, and wooden or leather shoes completed the costume. The rich wore ornamented silk cloaks. A girl's hair hung flowing or braided; after marriage it was cut short or bound around the head, as a mark of subjection. It was a fashion to dye the hair *blue*, but a lady's head-dress left only her face exposed; her brilliantly dyed robes and palla were in form not unlike those of Roman times.

Hunting and Hawking were the favorite out-door sports; the indoor were singing,—for even a laboring-man was disgraced if he could not sing to his own accompaniment,—harp-playing, story-telling, and, above all, the old German habits, feasting and drinking.



A DINNER-PARTY.

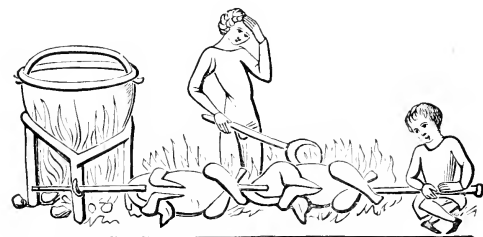
The Norman introduced new modes of thought and of life. More cleanly and delicate in personal habits, more elaborate in tastes, more courtly and ceremonious in manner, fresh from a province where learning had just revived and which was noted for its artistic architecture, and coming to a land that for a century had been nearly barren of literature and whose buildings had little grace or beauty, the Norman added culture and refinement to the Anglo-Saxon strength and sturdiness. Daring and resolute in attack, steady in discipline, skilful in exacting submission, fond of outside splendor, proud of military power, and appreciative of thought and learning, it was to him, says Pearson, that "England owes the builder, the knight, the schoolman, the statesman." But it was still only the refinement of a brutal age. The Norman soon drifted into the gluttonous habits he had at first ridiculed, and the conquest was enforced so pitilessly that "it was

distributor): hence the modern words *lord* and *lady*. The domestics and retainers were called *loaf-eaters*.

impossible to walk the streets of any great city without meeting men whose eyes had been torn out, and whose feet or hands, or both, had been lopped off."

A SCENE IN REAL LIFE.

The Anglo-Saxon Noon Meal.—About three o'clock in the afternoon the chief, his guests, and all his household, meet in the great hall. While the hungry crowd, fresh from woodland and furrow, lounge near the fire or hang up their weapons, the slaves drag in the heavy board, spreading on its upper half a handsome cloth. The tableware consists of wooden platters and bread-baskets, bowls for the universal broth, drinking-horns and cups, a few steel knives shaped like our modern razors, and some spoons, but no forks. As soon as the board is laid, the benches are drawn up, and the work of demolition begins. Great round cakes of bread, huge junks of boiled bacon, vast rolls of broiled eel, cups of milk, horns of ale, wedges of cheese, lumps of salt butter, and smoking piles of cabbage and beans, all disappear like magic. Kneeling slaves offer to the lord and his honored guests long



PRIMITIVE METHOD OF COOKING (FROM 14TH CENTURY MS.).

skewers or spits on which steaks of beef or venison smoke and sputter, ready for the hacking blade. Poultry, game, and geese are on the upper board; but, except the bare bones, the crowd of loaf-eaters see little of these dainties. Fragments and bones strew the floor, where they are eagerly snapped up by hungry hounds, or lie till the close of the meal. Meantime a clamorous mob of beggars and cripples hang round the door, squabbling over the broken meat, and mingling their unceasing whine with the many noises of the feast.¹

After the banquet comes the revel. The drinking-glasses—with rounded bottoms, so that they cannot stand on the table,² but must be

¹ In Norman times the beggars grew so insolent that ushers armed with rods were posted outside the hall door to keep them from snatching the food from the dishes as the cooks carried it to the table.

² This characteristic of the old drinking-cups is said to have given rise to the modern name of *tumbler*.

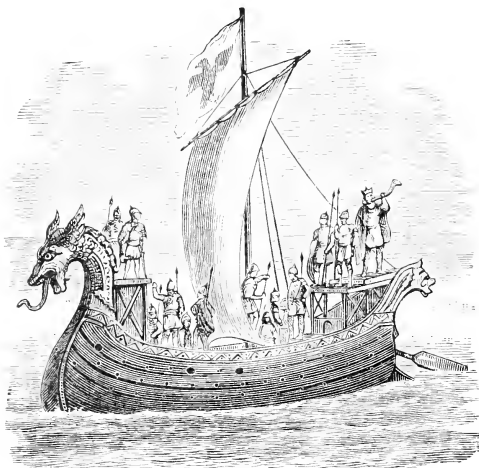
emptied at a draught—are now laid aside for gold and silver goblets, which are constantly filled and refilled with mead and—in grand houses—with wine. Gleemen sing, and twang the viola or harp (called *glee-wood*), or blow great blasts from trumpets, horns, and pipes, or act the



PREPARING A CANDIDATE FOR KNIGHTHOOD (FROM A 12TH CENTURY MS.).

buffoon with dance and jugglery. Amid it all rises the gradually increasing clamor of the guests, who, fired by incessant drinking, change their shouted riddles into braggart boasts, then into taunts and threats, and often end the night with bloodshed. (Condensed from Collier.)

II. FRANCE.



NORMAN SHIP (FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY).

The Norsemen—Scandinavians, like the Danish invaders of England—began to ravage the coast of France during the days of Charlemagne. Under his weak successors, they came thick and fast, ascending the rivers in their boats, and burning and plundering far and near. At last, in sheer desperation, Charles the Simple gave Rollo, the boldest of the vikings, a province since known as Normandy. Rollo took the required oath of feudal service, but delegated the ceremony of doing homage to one of his followers, who lifted the monarch's foot to his mouth so suddenly as to upset king and throne.

Soon a wonderful change occurred. The *Normans*, as they were henceforth called, showed as much vigor in cultivating their new estates as they had formerly in devastating

them. They adopted the language, religion, and customs of the French, and, though they invented nothing, they developed and gave new life to all they touched. Ere long Normandy became the fairest province, and these wild Norsemen, the bravest knights, the most astute statesmen, and the grandest builders of France.

TABLE OF FRENCH MEDIÆVAL KINGS.

CAPETIAN LINE.	HUGH CAPET	(987-996).	
	ROBERT	(996-1031).	
	HENRY I.	(1031-60).	
	PHILIP I.	(1060-1108).	
	LOUIS VI., the Fat	(1108-37).	
	LOUIS VII., the Young	(1137-80).	
	PHILIP II., Augustus	(1180-1223).	
	LOUIS VIII.	(1223-26).	
	LOUIS IX., Saint	(1226-70).	CHARLES, Count of Anjou and Provence, founder of House of Naples.
	PHILIP III., the Hardy	(1270-85).	ROBERT, Count of Clermont, founder of House of Bourbon.
VALOIS BRANCH.	PHILIP IV., the Fair	(1285-1314).	CHARLES, Count of Valois, founder of House of Valois (p. 54).
	LOUIS X. (1314).	PHILIP V. (1316).	CHARLES IV. (1322).
	CHARLES, Count of Valois, son of Philip III.		ISABELLA, <i>m.</i> EDWARD II. of England.
	PHILIP VI. (1328-50).		EDWARD III. (p. 54).
	JOHN, the Good	(1350-64).	
	CHARLES V., the Wise	(1364-80).	
	CHARLES VI., the Well-beloved	(1380-1422).	LOUIS, Duke of Orleans, founder of House of Valois-Orleans.
	CHARLES VII., the Victorious	(1422-61).	
	LOUIS XI. (1461-83).		
	CHARLES VIII. (1483-98).		

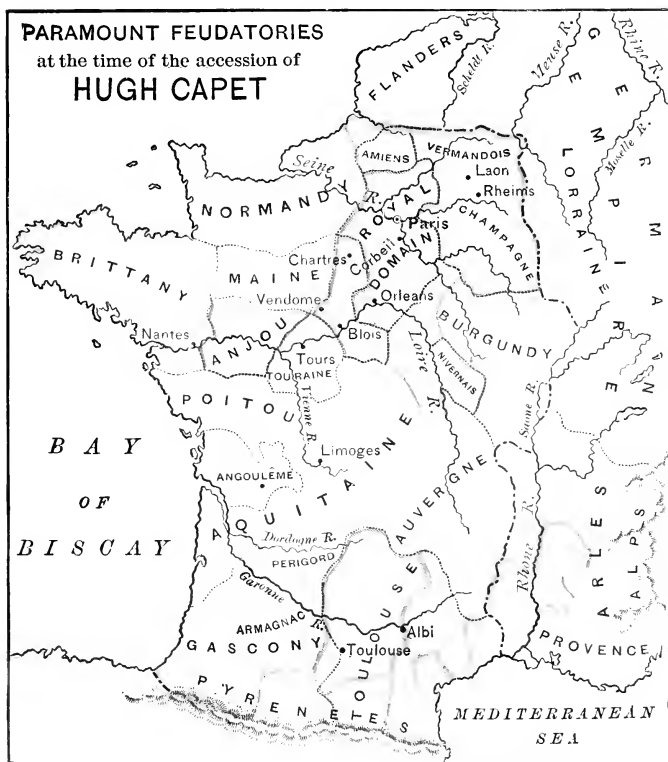
The Later Carolingian Kings¹ proved as powerless to defend and govern, as they had to preserve, the inheritance of their great ancestors. During the terror of the Norseman invasion, the people naturally turned for protection to the neighboring lords, whose castles were their only refuge. Feudalism, consequently, grew apace. In the 10th century France existed only in name. Normandy, Burgundy, Aquitaine, Champagne, Toulouse, were the true states, each with its independent government and its own life and history.

The Capetian Kings.—As Charles Martel, Mayor of the Palace, gained power during the last days of the do-nothing, Merovingian kings, and his son established a new dynasty, so, in the decadence of the Carolingians, Hugh the Great, Count of Paris, gained control, and his son, Hugh Capet, was crowned at Rheims (987). Thus was founded the third or *Capetian Line*. France had now a native French king, and its capital was Paris.

Weakness of the Monarchy.—The Royal Domain (see map), however, was only a small territory along the Seine and Loire. Even there the king scarcely ruled his nobles, while the great vassals of the Crown paid him scant respect. The early Capets made little progress toward strengthening their authority. When William of Normandy won the English crown, there began a long contest (p. 36) that retarded the growth of France for centuries; and when Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII., was married to Henry Plantagenet, Count of Anjou,—so carrying her magnificent inheritance of Poitou and Aquitaine to

¹ The descendants of Charlemagne were called the Carolingian kings. It is a significant fact that they have come down to us with the nicknames of the Good-natured, the Bald, the Stammerer, the Fat, the Simple, and the Idle (Brief Hist. France, Appendix. p. xxv.).

him who soon after became Henry II. of England,—the French crown was completely overshadowed.



Growth of the Monarchy.—The history of France during the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries shows how, in spite of foreign foes, she absorbed the great fiefs one by one; how royalty triumphed over feudalism; and how finally all became consolidated into one great monarchy.

Philip Augustus (1180–1223) was the ablest monarch France had seen since Charlemagne. When a mere boy he



PHILIP AUGUSTUS.

gained the counties of Vermandois, Amiens, and Valois; while by his marriage he secured L'Artois.

King John of England being accused of having murdered his nephew Arthur, the heir of Brittany, Philip summoned him, as his vassal, to answer for the crime before the peers of France. On his non-appearance, John was

adjudged to have forfeited his fiefs. War ensued, during which Philip captured not only Normandy, which gave him control of the mouth of the Seine, but also Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, upon the Loire.

Certain cities were granted royal charters conferring special privileges; under these, the citizens formed associations (*communes*) for mutual defense, elected magistrates, and organized militia. When Philip invaded Flanders, the troops from sixteen of the communes fought at his side, and helped him win the battle of *Bouvines* (1214) over the Flemings, Germans, and English. It was the first great French victory, and gave to the Crown authority, and to the people a thirst for military glory.

The *Albigenses*, so called from the city of Albi, professed doctrines at variance with the Church of Rome. Pope Innocent III. accordingly preached a crusade against them and their chief defender, Count Raymond of Toulouse. It was led by Simon de Montfort, father of the earl famous in

English history. Ruthless adventurers flocked to his standard from all sides, and for years this beautiful land was ravaged with fire and sword. Helpless Toulouse at last lapsed to the Crown, and so France acquired the Mediterranean coast. Instead of being shut up to the lands about Paris, the kingdom now touched three seas.

Louis IX. (1226–70) is best known by his title of Saint, and history loves to describe him as sitting beneath the spreading oak at Vincennes, and dispensing justice among his people. By his integrity, goodness, and wisdom he made all classes respect his rule. He firmly repressed the warring barons, and established the *Parliament of Paris*,—a court of justice to enforce equal laws throughout the realm. During this strong and beneficent reign, France assumed the first rank among the European nations.

Philip IV. (1285–1314) was called The Fair,—a title which applied to his complexion rather than his character, for he was crafty and cruel. In order to repress the nobles, he encouraged the communes and elevated the middle classes (*bourgeoisie*). His reign is memorable for the long and bitter contest which he carried on with the Pope, Boniface VIII. To strengthen himself, the king summoned for the first time in French history (1302) the *States-General*, or deputies of the Three Estates of the Realm,—the nobles, the clergy, and the commons (*tiers état*). The French people thus obtained representation from their king, as



A SOLDIER (14TH CENTURY).

the English people had, thirty-seven years before, from their nobles (p. 38). The papal court was finally removed to Avignon, and the new Pope, Clement V., became in effect a vassal of France.



A KNIGHT TEMPLAR.

The order of Templars (p. 93), by its wealth and pride, excited Philip's greed and jealousy. He accordingly seized the knights, and confiscated their treasures. The members were accused of blasphemous crimes, which they confessed under torture, and many were burned at the stake.

House of Valois.—Philip's three sons came to the throne in succession, but died leaving no male heir. The question then arose whether the crown could descend to a female. It was decided that, under the old Salic law of the Franks, the kingdom could not "fall to the distaff." During the short reign of Philip's sons, their uncle Charles, Count of Valois, secured almost royal power, and—the third instance of the kind in French history—his son obtained the crown, which thus went to the *Valois* branch of the Capet family. This succession was disputed by Edward III. of England, as son of the daughter of Philip IV. So began the contest called

The Hundred-Years' War (1328–1453).—Like the Peloponnesian war of ancient Greece, this long struggle was not one of continuous fighting, but was broken by occasional truces, or breathing-spells, caused by the sheer exhaustion of the contestants. Throughout the progress of this contest the fortunes of France and England were so linked that the

same events often form the principal features in the history of both, while there were many striking coincidences and contrasts in the condition of the two countries.

France.

Philip of Valois (1328-50) came to the throne at nearly the same time as his English rival, though France had *three* kings (Philip, John, and Charles) during Edward III.'s reign of fifty years. The storm of war was long gathering. Philip, coveting Aquitaine, excited hostilities upon its borders; gathered a fleet, and destroyed Southampton and Plymouth; interrupted the English trade with the great manufacturing cities of Ghent and Bruges; and aided the revolt of Robert Bruce in Scotland. A war of succession having arisen in Brittany, and the rival kings supporting opposite factions, Philip, during a truce, invited a party of Breton noblemen to a tournament, and beheaded them without trial.

England.

Edward III.'s reign (1327-77) was marked by England's most brilliant successes in war. At first Edward did homage for his lands in France; but afterward, exasperated by Philip's hostility, he asserted his claim to the French throne; made allies of Flanders and Germany; quartered the lilies of France with the lions of England; assembled a fleet, and defeated the French off *Sluys* (1340), thus winning the first great English naval victory; and finally, upon Philip's perfidy in slaying the Breton knights, invaded Normandy, and ravaged the country to the very walls of Paris. On his retreat, he was overtaken by an overwhelming French army near Crécy.

Battle of Crécy (1346).—The English yeomanry had learned the use of the longbow (p. 36), and now formed Edward's main reliance.

The French army was a motley feudal array, the knights despising all who fought on foot. The advance was led by a body of Genoese crossbow-men, who recoiled before the pitiless storm of English arrows. The French knights, instantly charging forward, trampled the helpless Italians under foot. In the midst of the confusion, the English poured down on their struggling ranks. Philip himself barely escaped, and reached Amiens with only five attendants.

The Result of this victory was the capture of Calais. Edward, driving out the inhabitants, made it an English settlement. Henceforth, for two hundred years, this city afforded the English an open door into the heart of France. Crécy was a triumph of the English yeoman over the French knight. It inspired England with a love of conquest.

The Black Death (1347–50), a terrible plague from the East, now swept over Europe. Half the population of England perished. Travelers in Germany found cities and villages without a living inhabitant. At sea, ships were discovered adrift, their crews having all died of the pestilence. The mad passions of men were stayed in the presence of this fearful scourge. Just as it abated, Philip died, leaving the crown to his son.



KING JOHN AND HIS SON AT POITIERS.

John the Good (1350–64) was brave and chivalrous, but his rashness and gayety were in marked contrast with Edward's stern common sense. His character was written all over with Crécy. Charles the Bad, the turbulent king of Navarre, was constantly rousing opposition; John seized him at a supper given by the Dauphin (the eldest son of the French king), and threw him into prison. Charles's friends appealed to Edward, and did homage to him for their domains.

While Edward was absent, the Scots, as usual in alliance with France (p. 39), invaded England; but, in the same year with Crécy, Edward's queen, Philippa, defeated them at *Neville's Cross*. The French war smoldered on, with fitful truce and plundering raid, until Edward espoused Charles's cause, when the contest broke out anew. The Prince of Wales—called the Black Prince, from the color of his armor—carried fire and sword to the heart of France.

Battle of Poitiers (1356).—John, having assembled

sixty thousand men, the flower of French chivalry, intercepted the Prince returning with his booty. It was ten years since Crécy, and the king hoped to retrieve its disgrace, but he only doubled it. The Prince's little army of eight thousand was posted on a hill, the sole approach being by a lane bor-



ENGLISH LONGBOW-MEN.

dered with hedges, behind which the English archers were concealed. The French knights, galloping up this road, were smitten by the shafts of the bowmen. Thrown into disorder, they fell back on the main body below, when the Black Prince in turn charged down the hill. John sprang from his horse, and fought till he and his young son Philip were left almost alone. This brave boy stood at his father's

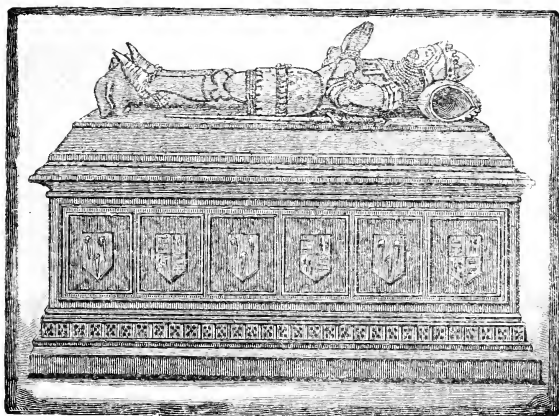
side, crying out, "Guard the left! Guard the right!" until, pressed on every hand, the king was forced to surrender.

The Black Prince treated his prisoner with the courtesy befitting a gallant knight. He stood behind his chair at dinner, and, according to the fashion of the age, waited upon him like a servant. When they entered London, the captive king was mounted on a splendidly caparisoned white charger, while the conqueror rode at his side on a black pony. John was afterward set free by the *Treaty of Bretigny*, agreeing to give up Aquitaine and pay three million crowns. One of his sons, however, who had been left at Calais as a hostage, escaped. Thereupon John, feeling bound by honor, went back to his splendid captivity.

The Condition of France was now pitiable indeed. The French army, dissolved into companies called Free Lances, roamed the country, plundering friend and foe. Even the Pope at Avignon had to redeem himself with forty thousand crowns. The land in the track of the English armies lay waste; the plow rusted in the furrow, and the houses were blackened ruins. The ransoms of the released nobles were squeezed from Jacques Bonhomme, as the lords nicknamed the peasant. Beaten and tortured to reveal their little hoards, the serfs fled to the woods, or dug pits in which to hide from their tormentors. Brutalized by centuries of tyranny, they at last rose as by a common impulse of despair and hate. Snatching any weapon at hand, they rushed to the nearest chateau, and pitilessly burned and massacred. The English joined with the French gentry in crushing this rebellion ("The Jacquerie"). Meanwhile the bourgeoisie in Paris, sympathizing with the peasants, rose to check the license of the nobles and the tyranny of the Crown. The States-General made a stand for liberty, refusing the Dauphin money and men for the war, except with guarantees. But the Dauphin marched on Paris; Marcel, the liberal leader, was slain; and this at-

The Black Prince was intrusted with the government of Aquitaine. Here he took the part of Don Pedro the Cruel,—a dethroned king of Castile,—and won him back his kingdom. But the thankless Pedro refused to pay the cost, and the Black Prince returned, ill, cross, and penniless. The haughty English were little liked in Aquitaine, and, when the Prince levied a house-tax to replenish his treasury, they turned to the Dauphin,—now Charles V.,—who summoned the Prince to answer for his exactions. On his refusal, Charles declared the English possessions in France forfeited. The Prince rallied his ebbing strength, and, borne in a litter, took the field. He captured Limoges, but sullied his fair fame by a massacre of the inhabitants, and was carried to England to die. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where his helmet, shield, gantlets, and surcoat—embroidered with the arms of France and England—still hang above his tomb.

Defeat of the English.—England had lost the warriors who won Crécy and Poitiers; moreover, Du Guesclin fought no pitched battles, but waged a far more dangerous guerilla warfare. "Never," said Edward, "was there a French king who wore so little armor, yet never was there one who gave me so much to do."



PRINCE EDWARD'S TOMB AT CANTERBURY.

tempt of the people to win their rights was stamped out in blood.

Charles V. (1364-80), the Wise, merited the epithet. Calling to his side a brave Breton knight, Du Guesclin, he relieved France by sending the Free Lances to fight against Don Pedro. When the Aquitainians asked for help, Charles saw his opportunity: for the dreaded Black Prince was sick, and Edward was growing old. So he renewed the contest. He did not, like his father, rush headlong into battle, but committed his army to Du Guesclin,—now Constable of France,—with orders to let famine, rather than fighting, do the work. One by one he got back the lost provinces, and the people gladly returned to their natural ruler.

The Constable died while besieging a castle in Auvergne, and the governor, who had agreed to surrender on a certain day, laid the keys of the stronghold upon the hero's coffin. Charles survived his great general only a few months, but he had regained nearly all his father and grandfather had lost.

Charles VI. (1380-1422), a beautiful boy of twelve years, became king. He ascended the throne *three* years after Richard, and his reign coincided with those of *three* English kings (Richard II.,

And now Edward closed his long reign. Scarcely was the great warrior laid in his grave ere the English coast was ravaged by the French fleet; this, too, only twenty years from Poitiers. Domestic affairs were not more prosperous. True, foreign war had served to diminish race hatred. Norman knight, Saxon bowman, and Welsh lancer had shared a common danger and a common glory at Crécy and Poitiers. But the old enmity now took the form of a struggle between the rich and the poor. The yoke of villeinage, which obliged the bondsmen to till their lord's land, harvest his crops, etc., bore heavily. During the Black Death many laborers died, and consequently wages rose. The landlords refused to pay the increase, and Parliament passed a law punishing any who asked a higher price for his work. This enraged the peasants. One John Ball went about denouncing all landlords, and often quoting the lines,

"When Adam delved and Eve span
Who was then the gentleman?"

Richard II. (1377-99), a beautiful boy of eleven years, became king. Heavy taxation having still further incensed the disaffected peasants, thousands rose in arms and marched upon London (1381).

Henry IV. and V.),—the reverse of the reign of Edward III. Both countries were now governed by minors, who were under the influence of ambitious uncles, anxious for their own personal power.

Charles's guardians assembled a great fleet at Sluys, and for a time frightened England by the fear of invasion. Next they led an army into Flanders, and at *Rosebecque* (1382) the French knights, with their mailed horses and long lances, trampled down the Flemings by thousands. This was a triumph of feudalism and the aristocracy over popular liberty; and the French cities which had revolted against the tyranny of the court were punished with terrible severity. Charles dismissed his guardians a year earlier than Richard, and, more fortunate than he, called to the head of affairs Du Clisson, friend and successor of Du Guesclin.

The King's Insanity.—An attempt being made to assassinate the Constable, Charles pursued the criminals into Brittany. One sultry day, as he was going through a forest, a crazy man darted before him and shouted, "Thou art betrayed!" The king, weak from illness and the heat, was startled into madness.

The Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans now governed, while for thirty years a maniac sat upon the throne. The death of Burgundy only doubled the horrors of the times, for his son, John the Fearless, was yet more unprincipled and cruel. Finally John became reconciled to his cousin Louis, Duke of Orleans, and, in token thereof, they partook of the sacrament together. Three days afterward Orleans was murdered by Burgundy's servants. The crazy king pardoned the murderer of his brother. The new Duke of Orleans being young, his father-in-law, the Count of Armagnac, became the head of the party which took his name. The Burgundians espoused the popular cause, and were friendly to England; the Orleanists, the aristocratic side, and opposed England. The queen joined the Burgundians; the Dauphin, the Armagnacs. Paris ran with blood.

The boy-king met them on Smithfield common. Their leader, Wat Tyler, uttering a threat, was slain by the mayor. A cry of vengeance rising from the multitude, Richard boldly rode forward, exclaiming, "I am your king. I will be your leader." The peasants accepted his written guaranty of their freedom, and went home quietly. But Parliament refused to ratify the king's pledges, and this insurrection was trodden out by the nobles, as the *Jacquerie* had been twenty-three years before, in blood.

Richard's character, besides this one act of courage, showed few kingly traits. His reign was a constant struggle with his uncles. When he threw off their yoke, he ruled well for a time, but soon began to act the despot, and by his recklessness alienated all classes. With his kingdom in this unsettled state, he sought peace by marrying a child-wife only eight years old, Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France. This marriage was unpopular; the people were restless, the nobles unruly, and finally Richard's cousin, Henry of Lancaster, seized the crown. Richard was deposed, and soon after, as is thought, was murdered in prison, like his great-grandfather, Edward II.

Henry IV. (1399-1413), who now founded the House of Lancaster, was authorized by Parliament to rule, though the Earl of March, a descendant of Lionel (p. 34), was nearer the throne. As Henry owed his place to Parliament, he had to act pretty much as that body pleased. The great nobles were none too willing to obey. The reign was therefore a troubled one. England could take no advantage of the distracted state of affairs in France.

Henry V. (1413-22), to strengthen his weak title to the throne by victory, and to give the discontented nobles war abroad instead of leaving them to plot treason at home, invaded France. While marching from Harfleur to Calais, he met a vastly superior French force upon the plain of Agincourt.

Battle of Agincourt (1415).—The French army was the flower of chivalry. The knights, resplendent in their

armor, charged upon the English line. But their horses floundered in the muddy, plowed fields, while a storm of arrows beat down horse and rider. In the confusion the English advanced, driving all before them. It was Crécy and Poitiers over again. Ten thousand Frenchmen fell, four fifths of whom were of gentle blood.

Treaty of Troyes (1420).—Henry again crossed the Channel, captured Rouen, and threatened Paris. In the face of this peril, the Dauphin and the Duke of Burgundy met for conference. It ended in the assassination of Burgundy. His son, Philip the Good, at once went over to the English camp, taking with him the queen and the helpless king. He there concluded a treaty, which declared Henry regent and heir of the kingdom, and gave him the hand of Charles's daughter, Catharine. Paris and northern France submitted; but the Armagnacs, with the Dauphin, held the southern part. The conqueror did not live to wear the crown he had won. The hero of Agincourt and his father-in-law, Charles VI., the crazy king, died within two months of each other.

[The next *three* reigns of the French and the English kings correspond to a year. France now loses a mad monarch and gets a frivolous king, who finally matures into a strong ruler; England loses a great warrior, and gets an infant who, when he matures into manhood, shows no strength, and inherits from his mother the tendency of the French royal family to insanity.]

Charles VII. (1422-61), called the "King of Bourges,"—from the city where he was crowned,—was so poor that the chroniclers of the time tell of the straits to which he was reduced for a pair of boots. Gay and pleasure-loving, he was indifferent to the agony of his native land. Not so with Jeanne d'Arc, a maiden in Domremy. As she fed her flock, she seemed to hear angel-voices saying that she was chosen to save France. Going to Charles, she announced that she was

Henry VI. (1422-61), though an infant, was proclaimed at Paris King of England and France, the Duke of Bedford acting as regent. In England there was no question as to the succession, and the claims of the Earl of March were not thought of for a moment. All eyes were fixed on France,—the new kingdom Henry V. had added to the English monarchy. There Bedford gained two great battles, won town after town, and finally, resolving to carry the war into southern France,

sent of Heaven to conduct him to be crowned at Rheims—then in possession of the English. The king reluctantly committed his cause into her hands.

laid siege to Orleans. The capture of this city was imminent, when Charles's cause was saved by a maid, Jeanne d'Arc.

Jeanne, wearing a consecrated sword and bearing a holy banner, led Charles's army into Orleans. The French sol-



JEANNE D'ARC (JOAN OF ARC).

diers were inspired by her presence, while the English quailed with superstitious fear. The Maid of Orleans, as she was now called, raised the siege, led Charles to Rheims, and saw him crowned. Then, her mission accomplished, she begged leave to go back to her humble home. But she

had become too valuable to Charles, and he urged her to remain. The maid's trust, however, was gone, and the spell of her success failed. She was captured, thrown into a dungeon at Rouen, and tried as a witch. Abandoned by all, Jeanne was condemned and burnt at the stake (1431).

*The spirit of the maid survived her death. French patriotism was aroused, and, in spite of himself, Charles was borne to victory. First the Duke of Burgundy grew lukewarm in the English cause, and finally Armagnacs and Burgundians clasped hands in the *Treaty of Arras* (1435). Bedford died broken-hearted. Paris opened its gates to its legitimate king.*

Charles's character seemed now to

Henry VI., as a man, had little more authority than as a child. His wife, Margaret, was the daughter of René, Duke of Anjou. The English opposed this marriage with a French lady. But she possessed beauty and force of character, and for years ruled in her husband's name.

A formidable insurrection broke out (1450) under Jack Cade, who, complaining of bad government, the king's evil ad-

change. He seized the opportunity to press the war while England was rent with factions. He called to his councils Richemont the Constable, and the famous merchant Jacques Cœur; convened the States-General; organized a regular army; recovered Normandy and Gascony; and sought to heal the wounds and repair the disasters of the long war.

End of the Hundred-Years' War.—Step by step, Charles pushed his conquests from England. Finally Talbot, the last and bravest of the English captains, fell on the field of *Castillon* (1453), and his cause fell with him. It was the end of this long and bitter struggle. Soon, of all the patrimony of William the Conqueror, the dower of Eleanor, the conquests of Edward III. and Henry V., there was left to England little save the city of Calais.

visers, taxes, etc., led a peasant host upon London. This uprising of the people was put down only after bloodshed. The nobles, long wont to enrich themselves by the plunder of France, upon the reverses in that country, found England too small and their revenues too scant, and so struggled for place at home. The Duke of York, protector during the insanity of the king, was loath to yield power on his recovery, and questions of the succession became rife. The claims of the House of York were supported by the Earl of Warwick,—the “king-maker,” the most powerful nobleman in England. The sky was black with the coming storm,—the Wars of the Roses. The king's longing for peace, his feebleness, the influence of the queen, the rivalries of the nobles,—all weakened the English rule in France, and gave Charles his opportunity

[Two years after Talbot fell, England was desolated by the Wars of the Roses. Edward IV. deposed Henry VI. the same year that Charles VII. died and Louis XI. ascended the throne; Richard III. and Charles VIII. were contemporaneous (1483), but English and French history during the rest of the 15th century was seldom interwoven.]

Triumph of Absolutism.—Louis XI.'s reign marks an epoch in French history. He used every energy of his cruel, crafty mind, and scrupled at no treachery or deceit to overthrow feudalism and bring all classes in subjection to the Crown. His policy of centralization restored France to her former position in Europe; and his administration, by making roads and canals, and encouraging manufactures and education, secured the internal prosperity of the country.

The Dukedom of Burgundy, during the recent troubles of France, had gained strength. Comprising the Duchy of Burgundy and nearly all the present kingdoms of Belgium and the Netherlands, it threatened to become an independent state between France and Germany. Its duke, Charles the Bold, held the most splendid court in Europe. Restless and ambitious, he constantly pursued some scheme



of annexation. He was met, however, on every hand by Louis's craft. He planned once with Edward IV. of England an invasion of France; the English army again crossed the Channel, but Louis feasted the soldiers, and finally bribed Edward to return home. Charles wanted Lorraine and Provence; his rule in Alsace was harsh; while he had offended the Swiss. Louis cunningly contrived to unite these various enemies against

Charles. The ill-fated duke was defeated at *Granson*, *Morat*, and *Nancy* (1476-77); and after the last battle his body was found frozen in a pool of water by the roadside. Thus ended the dream of a Burgundian kingdom. Mary, the daughter of Charles, retained his lands in the Low Countries, but France secured the Duchy of Burgundy.

Consolidation of the Kingdom.—Louis also added to his kingdom Artois, Provence, Roussillon, Maine, Anjou, Franche Comté, and other extensive districts. After his death, his daughter, Anne of Beaujeu, who was appointed regent, secured for her brother, Charles VIII., the hand of Anne, heiress of Brittany. The last of the great feudal

states between the Channel and the Pyrenees was absorbed by the Crown.

As the middle ages closed, France, united at home, was ready to enter upon schemes of conquest abroad; and the power of the king, instead of being spent in subduing the vassals of the Crown, was free to assert the French influence among other nations.

EARLY FRENCH CIVILIZATION.

The Gauls.—The native inhabitants of France were Gauls, or Celts. In earliest times they dressed in skins, dyed or tattooed their flesh, drank out of the skulls of their enemies, worshiped sticks, stones, trees, and thunder, and strangled the stranger wrecked on their coast. But, many centuries before the Romans entered Gaul, it had been visited by the Phœnicians, and afterward by the Greeks, who left, especially along the coast, some traces of their arts. The Gauls were a social, turbulent, enthusiastic race, less truthful and more vain, more imaginative and less enduring, than their neighbors the Germans. Like them, they were large, fair-skinned, and yellow-haired. Noisy and fluent in speech, Cicero compared them to town-criers, while Cato was impressed with their tact in argument. Fond of personal display, they wore their hair long and flowing, and affected showy garments. Their chiefs glittered

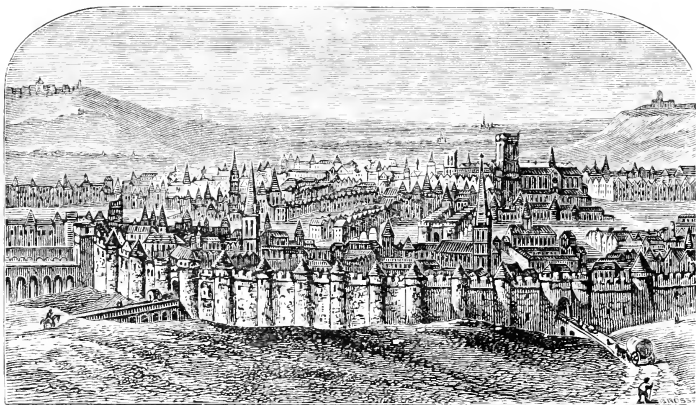


EARLY INHABITANTS OF FRANCE.

with jewelry, and delighted in huge headpieces of fur and feathers, and in gold and silver belts, from which they hung immense sabers.

They went to war in all this finery, though they often threw it off in the heat of battle. Armed with barbed, iron-headed spears, heavy broadswords, lances, and arrows, they rushed fiercely on their foe, shouting their fearful war-cry, "Off with their heads!" Wildly elated by success, they were as greatly depressed by defeat. The gregarious instinct was strong; and with the Hebrew tribe, the Greek phratry, the Roman gens, and the German family, may be classed—as, perhaps, the most tenacious and exclusive of all—the *Celtic Clan*.

Their arts were suited to their taste for show. They made brilliant dyes and gayly plaided stuffs, plated metals, veneered woods, wove and embroidered carpets, and adorned their cloaks with gold and silver



PARIS IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

wrought ornaments. Quick to assimilate, they gradually took on all the culture and refinements of their Italian conquerors, until the round, wattled, clay-plastered, and straw-thatched hut of the early Gaul was transformed into the elegant country villa or sumptuous town residence of the Gallo-Roman gentleman.

But the luxurious Gallo-Roman was forced to yield to a new race of conquerors,—the Franks, or Teutons; and finally a third people—the Normans—left its impress upon the French character. In the combined result the Gallie traits were predominant, and are evident in the Frenchman of to-day, just as, across the Channel, the Teutonic influences have chiefly molded the English nation.

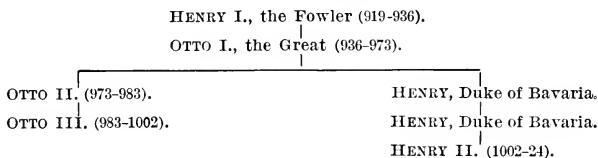
III. GERMANY.

Comparison with France.—The later Carlovingian kings in Germany were weak, as in France; and there, also, during the terrible Norseman invasions, feudalism took deep root. France comprised many fiefs governed by nobles almost sovereign; Germany, also, contained five separate peoples—Franks, Saxons, Thuringians, Bavarians, and Swabians—whose dukes were nearly independent in their realms. But in France the Crown gradually absorbed the different feudatories, and so formed one powerful kingdom; while through German history there runs no connecting thread, the states continuing jealous, disunited, and often hostile. The German monarch was elective, and not, like the French king, hereditary. The struggle of the Crown with its powerful vassals was alike in both countries, but the results were different. While the descendants of Capet held the French throne for eight centuries, the German dynasties were short-lived. Germany had no central capital city, like Paris, around which the national sentiment could grow; and the emperor was a Bavarian, a Saxon, but never permanently and preëminently a German. The German branch of the Carlovingian line ended about three quarters of a century earlier than the French. Conrad, Duke of the Franks, was elected by the nobles, and, being lifted on the shield, was hailed king (911). After a troubled reign, with singular nobleness he named as his successor his chief enemy, Henry of Saxony, who was thereupon chosen.¹ He inaugurated the **Saxon Dynasty** (919–1024).—The tribe conquered by Charlemagne only about a hundred years before now took

¹ The messenger sent to inform him of his election found the duke catching finches, whence he was known as Henry the Fowler.

the lead in German affairs. This dynasty embraced, in general, the 10th century. It gave to the throne two Henrys and three Ottos.

HOUSE OF SAXONY.



The Magyars, a barbarous people occupying the plains of modern Hungary, were the dreaded foe of the empire. More cruel than even the Norsemen, they were believed to be cannibals, and to drink the blood of their enemies. They had repeatedly swept across Germany to the Rhine, burning and slaying without mercy. Henry I., and his son Otto I., defeated them in two great battles. After the last overthrow, the Hungarians (as they were now called, from taking the lands once held by the Huns) settled down peaceably, and by the year 1000 became Christian. On the adjacent frontier Otto formed a military province,—the Oster (east) March, a name since changed to Austria.

The Burghers.—Seeing that the people needed strong places for their protection against their barbarous enemies, Henry founded walled towns and built fortresses, around which villages soon grew up. He also ordered every ninth man to live in one of these *burghs*, as the fortresses were styled. Hence arose the burgher class, afterward the great support of the Crown in the disputes with the nobles.

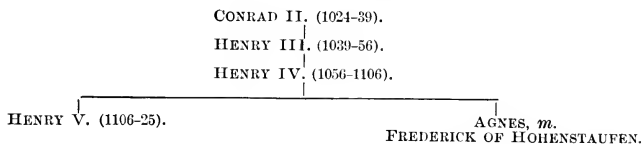
Otto the Great (936-973), like his father, was strong enough to hold the German tribes together as one nation, and wage successful war against the Slavs, Danes, and other

heathen neighbors on the east and the north. Emulating the glory of Charlemagne, he repeatedly descended into Italy,¹ receiving at Milan the crown of the Lombards, and at Rome that of the Cæsars. Thus was reëstablished

The Holy Roman Empire, founded in the golden age of the Frankish monarch. Henceforth the kings of Germany claimed to be kings of Lombardy and Roman emperors, and thought little of their royal title beside the imperial, which gave them, as the head of Christendom and guardian of the faith of the Catholic Church, so much higher honor. But, in protecting their Italian interests, the emperors wasted the German blood and treasure that should have been devoted to compacting their home authority. They were often absent for years, and meanwhile the dukes, margraves, and counts became almost sovereign princes. Thus Germany, instead of growing into a united nation, like other European peoples, remained a group of almost independent states.

The Franconian² Dynasty (1024–1125) embraced, in general, the 11th century. It gave to the throne *Conrad II.*, and *Henry III.*, *Henry IV.*, and *Henry V.*

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.



¹ There is a gleam of romance connected with Otto's first descent into Italy. Lothaire, king of that distracted country, had been poisoned by Berengar, a brutal prince, who, in order to secure the throne of Italy, wished to marry his son to Adelheid, Lothaire's young and beautiful widow. She spurned the revolting alliance, and, escaping from the loathsome prison where she was confined, appealed to Otto, who defeated Berengar, and afterward married Adelheid.

² The Eastern or Teutonic Francia (Frankland) is termed Franconia, to distinguish it from Western Francia, or France (p. 29).

Conrad II. (1024–39) annexed to the empire the kingdom of Burgundy, thus governing three of the four great kingdoms of Charlemagne (map, p. 64).

Henry III. (1039–56) elevated the empire to its glory, established order, and sought to enforce among the warring barons the Truce of God.¹ He was early called to Italy, where three candidates claimed the papacy. Henry deposed them all, placing four Germans successively in the papal chair.

Henry IV. (1056–1106) was only six years old at his father's death. Never taught to govern himself or others, he grew up to be fickle, violent, and extravagant. When, at the age of fifteen, he became king, his court was a scandal to Germany. Reckless companions gathered about the youthful monarch. Ecclesiastical offices were openly sold. Women were to be seen blazing in jewels taken from the robes of the priests. His misrule provoked the fierce Saxons to revolt, and he subdued the insurrection only with great difficulty. Then came the peril of his reign.

Hildebrand, the son of a poor carpenter, the monk of Cluny, the confidential adviser of five popes, now received the tiara as Pope Gregory VII. Saint-like in his purity of life, iron-willed, energetic, eloquent, he was resolved to reform the Church, and make it supreme. He declared that, having apostolic preëminence over kings, he could give and withhold crowns at pleasure; that ecclesiastic offices should not be sold; that no prince should hold a priestly office; that no priest should marry; and that the Pope alone had the right to appoint bishops and invest them with the ring and staff,—the emblems of office.

War of the Investiture.—Henry was unwilling to resign

¹ This ordered the sword to be sheathed each week between Wednesday evening and Monday morning, on pain of excommunication (Brief Hist. France, p. 42).

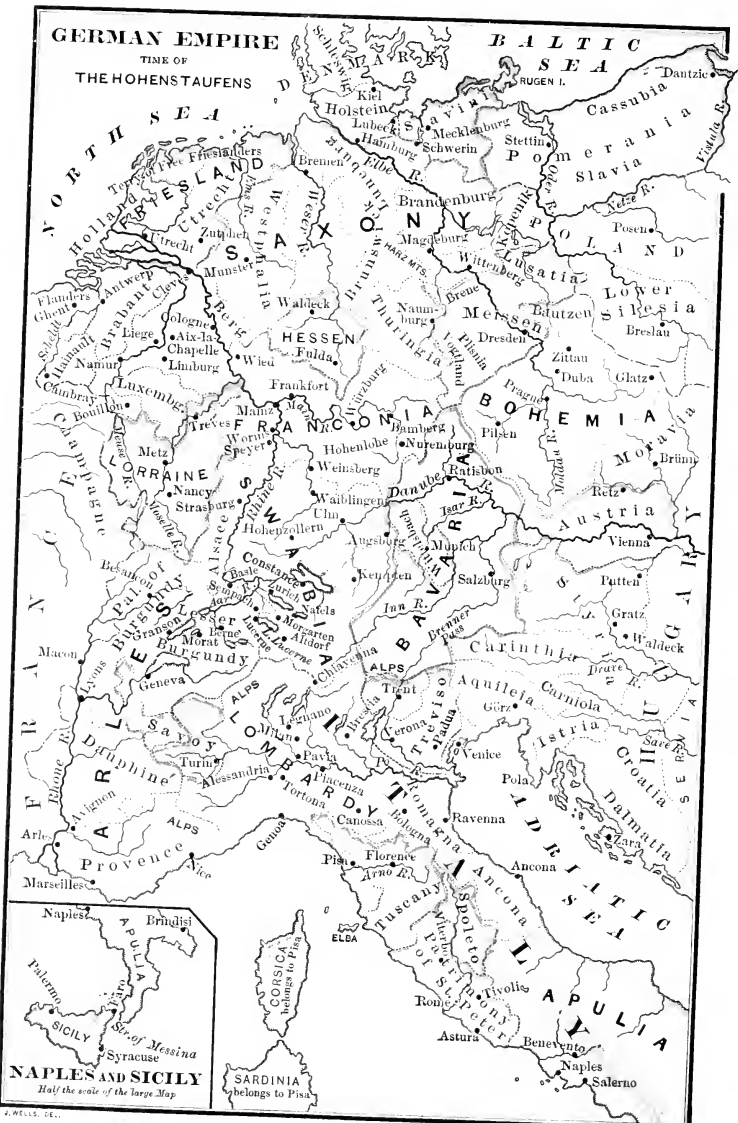
the right of investiture and demanded that the Pope degrade those prelates who had favored the rebels. Gregory on the other hand called upon the king to answer to charges brought against him by his subjects. Henry closed his eyes to the magnitude of the power which the papacy had acquired, and summoned at Worms a synod which deposed the Pope; in reply, the Pope excommunicated Henry, and released his subjects from their allegiance. Now Henry reaped the fruit of his folly and tyranny. The German princes, glad of a chance to humble him, threatened to elect a new king. Cowed by this general defection, Henry resolved to throw himself at the feet of the Pope. He accordingly crossed the Alps, not, as his predecessors had done, at the head of a mighty army, but as a suppliant, with his faithful wife, Bertha, carrying his infant son. Reaching Canossa, the king, barefooted, bareheaded, and clad in penitent's garb, was kept standing in the snow at the castle gate for three days before he was allowed to enter. Then, after yielding all to Gregory, he received the kiss of peace.

But this did not allay the strife in Germany. The princes elected Rudolph of Swabia as king, and Gregory finally recognized the rival monarch. Henry now pushed on the war with vigor, slew Rudolph in battle, invaded Italy, and appointed a new Pope. Gregory, forced to take refuge among the Normans, died not long after at Salerno. His last words were, "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity; therefore I die in exile." Hildebrand's successor, however, pursued his plans. The tendency of the best minds in Europe was toward papal supremacy. Henry's heart was softened by misfortune, and experience taught him wisdom; but he could not regain his power, and he died at last, dethroned by his unnatural son.

Henry V (1106–25), on taking the crown, deserted the

GERMAN EMPIRE

TIME OF
THE HOHENSTAUFENS



J. WELLS, DE.

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papal party, and stoutly held his father's position. He invaded Italy, and forced Pope Paschal II. to crown him emperor. But no sooner had Henry recrossed the Alps, than the Pope retracted the concessions, and excommunicated him.

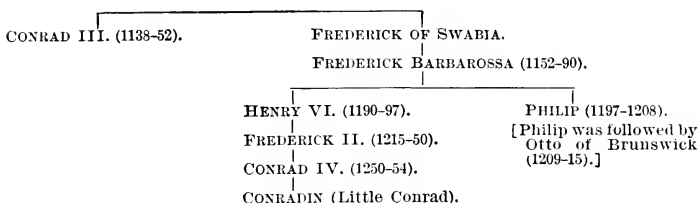
The Concordat of Worms (1122) finally settled the difficulty by a compromise, the investiture being granted to the Pope, and homage for land to the emperor. The war had lasted nearly half a century. Though Henry was now at peace with the Church, the struggle with the rebellious nobles went on through his life. With him ended the Franconian line.

Lothaire II. of Saxony, elected king by the princes, was crowned emperor by the Pope; but, after a brief and stormy reign, the crown passed to *Conrad III.* of Swabia, who founded

The Hohenstaufen Line (1138–1254).—He struggled long with the Saxons and others who opposed his rule. During the siege of Weinsberg,¹ the rebels raised the war-cry of *Welf*,—the name of their leader; and Conrad's army, that of *Waiblingen*,—the birthplace of Frederick of Swabia, the king's brother. These cries, corrupted by the Italians into *Guelf* and *Ghibelline*, were afterward applied to the adherents of the Pope and the emperor respectively, and for centuries resounded from the Mediterranean to the North Sea. Conrad, first of the German emperors, joined the Crusaders (p. 94). He died as he was preparing to visit Italy to be crowned emperor.

¹ Conrad, upon the surrender of this city, resolved to destroy it, but consented that the women might take with them such valuables as they could carry on their shoulders. When the gates were thrown open, to Conrad's astonishment there appeared a long line of women, each staggering beneath the weight of her husband or nearest relative. The Swabian king was so affected by this touching scene that he spared the city.

HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN.



Frederick Barbarossa (the Red Beard), Conrad III.'s nephew, was unanimously chosen king. He proved a worthy successor of Charlemagne and Otto I., and his reign was one of the most brilliant in the annals of the empire. He wielded the royal power with terrible force, established order, controlled the dukes, and punished the robber-knights. The phantom of the empire, however, allured him into Italy. Five times this "German Sennacherib" crossed the Alps with magnificent armies, to be wasted by pestilence and the sword. He was crowned emperor, but only after he had consented to hold the Pope's stirrup.

The Italian cities, grown rich and powerful during the Crusades, were jealous of their independent rights. Frequent wars broke out among them, as in olden Greece, and the weaker cities, oppressed by the stronger, appealed to the emperor. The strife of Guelf and Ghibelline waxed hot. Quarrels arose with the Holy See. Milan was taken by Frederick and razed to the ground. The Lombard cities leagued against Frederick. Finally, after years of strife, the emperor, beaten on the decisive field of *Legnano* (1176), made peace, submitted to the demands of the Pope, and granted the Italian cities their municipal rights. After this, contentment and peace marked the evening of Fred-

erick's eventful life. He perished in the Third Crusade¹ (p. 94).

Henry VI. (1190–97),² the Cruel, hastened to Italy, and was crowned emperor at Rome; thence he invaded Naples and Sicily,—the inheritance of his wife,—where his rapacity recalled the days of the Goths and Vandals. His name is associated with Richard the Lion-hearted (p. 95).

Frederick II. (1215–50) had been chosen King of the Romans, but he was a child at his father's death, and was quite overlooked in Germany, where rival kings were elected. When he became of age, the Pope called on the German princes to elect him their monarch. He was accordingly crowned king at Aix-la-Chapelle, and emperor at Rome. His genius and learning made him "The Wonder of the World." He spoke in six languages, was versed in natural history and philosophy, and skilled in all knightly accomplishments. More Italian than Teuton, he visited Germany only once during thirty years, content to surround himself with poets, artists, and sages, in his brilliant Sicilian court. But he became involved in quarrels with one pope after another; he was twice excommunicated; again the Italian cities raised the war-cry of Guelf and Ghibelline, and he died in the midst of the long struggle (p. 89).

The "Great Interregnum."—*Conrad IV.* (1250–54) was the last Hohenstaufen king of Germany. Already rival monarchs had been chosen, and after him, for nearly

¹ One day while marching through Syria, false news was brought him of the death of his son. Tears flowed down his beard, now no longer red, but white. Suddenly springing up, he shouted, "My son is dead, but Christ still lives! Forward!" — Tradition says that the Red Beard sleeps with his knights in a cavern of the Kyffhäuser, near the Hartz, and when "the ravens shall cease to hover about the mountain, and the pear tree shall blossom in the valley," then he shall descend at the head of his Crusaders, bringing back to Germany the golden age of peace and unity. The substance of this beautiful dream has been realized in our own day.

² Henry had already been chosen successor and crowned "King of the Romans,"—a title thenceforth borne by the heir apparent during an emperor's lifetime.

twenty years, the empire had no recognized head. So low did German patriotism sink that at one time the crown was offered to the highest bidder. Order was now unknown outside of city walls. Often during these dark days did the common people think of Barbarossa, and sigh for the time when he should awake from his long sleep and bring back quiet and safety. At last, even the selfish barons became



THE ROBBER-KNIGHTS.

convinced that Germany could not do without a government. The leading princes, who had usurped the right of choosing the king, and were hence called *Electors* (p. 79), selected Count *Rudolf of Hapsburg* (1273–91). A brave, noble-hearted man, he sought to restore order, punish the robber-knights, and abolish private wars.

State of Germany.—The independence of the princes had now reached its height. The Hohenstaufens, vainly grasping after power in Italy, had neglected their German interests, and Frederick II., for the

sake of peace, even confirmed the princes in the right they had usurped. There were in Germany over sixty free cities, one hundred dukes, counts, etc., and one hundred and sixteen spiritual rulers,—in all, more than two hundred and seventy-six separate powers. In proof of the arrogance of the nobles, it is said that a certain knight, receiving a visit from Barbarossa, remained seated in the emperor's presence, saying that he held his lands in fee of the sun.

Each nobleman claimed the right of waging war, and, in the little district about his castle, was a law to himself. When at peace with the neighboring lords, he spent his time in the chase,—tramping over the crops, and scouring through the woods, with his retainers and dogs. In war he watched for his foes, or attacked some merchant-train going to or from a city with which he was at feud. Robber-knights sallied out from their mountain fastnesses upon the peaceful traveler, and, escaping with their booty to their strongholds, bade defiance to the feeble power of the law.

The Peasants, more than others, needed a central power, able to keep the public peace and enforce justice. They were still feudal tenants. There was no one to hear their complaints or redress their wrongs. The lords, encroaching more and more upon their ancient privileges, had robbed them of their common rights over the pastures, the wild game, and the fish in the streams, until the peasants had become almost slaves. In fine weather they were forced to work for their lord, while their own little crops were to be cared for on rainy days. Even during their holidays they were required to perform various services for the people at the castle. Time and again they rose to arms, and, elevating the *bundschuh*, or peasant's clog, struck for liberty. But the nobles and knightly orders, combining, always crushed the insurrection with terrible ferocity.

The Feme was a tribunal of justice that sprang up in Westphalia from the old Courts of Counts that Charlemagne established. During these troublous times it attained great power and spread far and wide, appeals being made to it from all parts of Germany. Its proceedings were secret, and the deliberations were often held in desolate places, or in some ancient seat of justice, as the famous Linden-tree at Dortmund. Its death-sentence was mysteriously executed; only the dagger with the mark of the Feme, found plunged into the body, told how avenging justice had overtaken the criminal.

The Growth of the Cities was a characteristic of the middle ages. They formed a powerful restraint upon the feudal lords. Each city was a little free state, fortified and provisioned for a siege. Behind its walls the old German love of liberty flourished, and views of life were cherished quite different from those of the castle and the court. The petty quarrels of the barons disturbed the public peace, injured

trade, and forced the merchants to guard their convoys of goods. The vassals, constantly escaping from the lords and taking refuge in the towns, were a continual source of difference. There was, therefore, almost perpetual war between the cities and the nobles. The cities, compelled to ally themselves for mutual protection, became more and more a power in the land. The *Rhenish League* comprised seventy towns, and the ruins of the robber-knights' fastnesses destroyed by its forces still exist along the Rhine, picturesque memorials of those lawless times. The *Hanseatic League* at one period numbered over eighty cities, had its own fleets and armies, and was respected by foreign kings. The emperors, finding in the strength of the cities a bulwark against the bishops and the princes, constantly extended the municipal rights and privileges. The free cities had the emperor for their lord, were released from other feudal obligations, and made their own laws, subject only to his approval. Every citizen was a freeman, bore arms, and was eligible to knighthood. Manufactures and trade thrived in the favoring air of freedom, and merchant-princes became the equals of hereditary nobles.

[From the middle of the 13th to the beginning of the 16th century, Germany was unfruitful of great men or great events. Its history for two hundred and fifty years presents only a few points of interest. The high dignity of the empire ended with the Hohenstaufens. Henceforth its strongest monarchs were little more than German kings. They rarely ventured to cross the Alps, and, when they did so, produced only a transient effect; in time they assumed the title of emperor without the coronation by the Pope. Italy fell away from the imperial control, and Burgundy dropped into the outstretched hands of France.]

Hapsburg or Austrian Line.¹—Rudolf renounced the rights of the Hohenstaufens in Italy, declaring that Rome was like a lion's den, to which the tracks of many animals led, but from which none returned. Having acquired Austria, Styria, and Carniola, he conferred these provinces on his son, *Albert I.* (1298–1308), thus laying the foundation of the future greatness of the House of Hapsburg, or Austria. From the time of *Albert II.* (1438–39) until Napoleon broke up the empire (p. 257), the electors chose as emperors, with

¹ The House of Hapsburg was so named from Rudolf's castle upon the banks of the Aar in Switzerland.

a single exception, a member of this family, and generally its head. Thus Austria gave its strength to the empire, and, in turn, the empire gave its dignity to the Hapsburgs. Albert's father-in-law, *Sigismund* (1410–37), before he was raised to the imperial throne, was King of Hungary, and then began the close connection of Austria with that court.

The Golden Bull¹ (1356) was a charter granted by Charles IV., fixing the electors, and the mode of choosing the emperors. It confirmed the custom of having seven electors,—four temporal and three spiritual lords. The election was to take place at Frankfort, and the coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle. The electors were granted sovereign rights within their territories, their persons declared sacred, and appeals to the emperor denied, save when justice was refused. This decree diminished the confusion which had hitherto attended the election of kings, but it made the electors the most powerful persons in the empire, stimulated other princes to acquire similar privileges, and perpetuated the fatal divisions of Germany.

The first university of Germany was founded at Prague by Charles IV.; it became so famous as soon to number seven thousand students.

The Council of Constance (1414) was called by Sigismund, following the example of Constantine in convening the famous Council of Nice (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 265). This was the era of the "Great Schism," and the object of the council was to settle the dispute between three different claimants for the papal chair. Nearly five thousand clergymen, including cardinals and bishops, with a vast concourse of the chief vassals of the Crown, learned men, knights, and ambassadors from the Christian powers, were present. A new Pope, Martin V., was chosen, and he took his seat as successor of Gregory XII.

¹ So named from the knob of gold (*bullæ aurea*) which inclosed the seal.

John Huss, rector of the university at Prague, who had adopted the views of Wycliffe, the English reformer, and attacked certain doctrines of the Church, was summoned to appear before the council. Under a safe-conduct from the emperor, Huss came; but he was tried, convicted of heresy, and burned at the stake (1415).¹ His ashes were thrown into the Rhine to prevent his followers from gathering them. The next year, Jerome of Prague, who brought Wycliffe's writings to the university, suffered death in the same place.

Hussite War (1419-35).—The Bohemians, roused to fury by the death of their favorite teacher and by subsequent persecutions, flew to arms. Under Ziska, "the One-eyed," they learned to strike unerringly with their farmers' flails, to wield heavy iron maces, and to shelter themselves behind wagons bound with chains. The emperor's troops fled before them, often without a blow. It was sixteen years before Bohemia was subdued.

House of Hohenzollern.—Sigismund, being in want of money, sold Brandenburg and its electoral dignity for four hundred thousand gold florins, to Frederick, Count of Hohenzollern (1415). The new elector vigorously ruled his possession, with gunpowder battered down the "castle walls, fourteen feet thick," of the robber-knights, and restored order and quiet. His descendants to-day occupy the throne of Prussia.

The Diet of Worms (1495), summoned by *Maximilian*

¹ When addressing the council, Sigismund said, "Date operam, ut illa nefanda schisma eradicetur." Upon a cardinal remarking to him that "schisma" is of the neuter gender, he replied, "I am king of the Romans and above grammar!"—When the executioner was about to light the pile from behind, Jerome called out, "Set in front; had I dreaded fire I should not have been here." Sylvius (afterward Pope Pius II.), in his History of Bohemia, says, "Both Huss and Jerome made haste to the fire as if they were invited to a feast; when they began to burn, they sang a hymn, and scarcely could the flames and the crackling of the fire stop their singing."

(1493–1519), decreed a Perpetual Peace, abolished the right of private war, and established the *Imperial Chamber of Justice*, with power to declare the ban of the empire. In order to carry out the decisions of this body, Maximilian divided the empire into *Ten Circles*, each having its tribunal for settling disputes. He also founded the *Aulic Council*, or court of appeal from the lower courts in Germany. The old Roman law rapidly came into use in these tribunals. There was now a promise of order in this distracted country.

Maximilian's Marriage with Mary of Burgundy, the beautiful daughter of Charles the Bold (p. 64), added her rich dower to the House of Austria.

The End of the Middle Ages was marked by the reign of Maximilian, and this monarch is known in German history as the "Last of the Knights." Gunpowder had changed the character of war, printing was invented, feudal forms and forces were dying out, and Christopher Columbus had discovered America.

IV. SWITZERLAND.

Origin.—The confederation of the three Forest Cantons—Schwyz, Uri, and Unterwalden—clustered about the beautiful lake of Lucerne was the germ of Switzerland. They were German lands owing allegiance to the emperor, and their league for mutual defense was like that of other districts and cities of the empire. Rudolf, himself a Swiss count, had estates in these cantons, and, being popular with his former neighbors, was chosen as their protector; but the tyranny of his son Albert, the Duke of Austria, when he became emperor, roused these brave mountaineers to assert their independence.¹ Three great battles mark the successive stages in their struggle for liberty.

¹ One November night in 1307, a little company met under the open sky and

Battle of Morgarten (1315).—Albert was assassinated while marching to crush the rising, but his successor, Leopold, Duke of Austria, invaded Switzerland with an army of fifteen thousand men, ostentatiously bearing ropes for hanging the chief rebels. The Swiss, only thirteen hundred in all, after a day of fasting and prayer, took post in the defile of Morgarten,—the Thermopylæ of Switzerland. Fifty outlaws, denied the privilege of fighting with the main body, were stationed on a cliff overlooking the entrance. When the heavy-armed cavalry were well in the pass, the band of exiles suddenly let fall an avalanche of stones and timber. This throwing the Austrian column into confusion, the Swiss rushed down with their halberts and iron-shod clubs. The flower of the Austrian chivalry fell on that ill-fated day. Leopold himself escaped only by the aid of a peasant, who led him through by-paths over the mountain.

Battle of Sempach (1386).—About seventy years had passed, when Leopold—nephew of him who fought at Morgarten—sought to subdue the League. He found the patriots posted near the little lake of Sempach. The Austrian knights, dismounting, formed a solid body clad in armor from head to foot, and with long projecting spears. The

solemnly swore to defend their liberty. This was the birthday of Swiss independence. The next New Year's was fixed for the uprising. Meanwhile Gessler, an Austrian governor, set up a hat in the market place of Atdorf, and commanded all to bow to it in homage. Tradition says that William Tell, passing by with his little son, refused this obeisance. Brought before Gessler, he was doomed to die unless he could shoot an arrow through an apple placed on his boy's head. Tell pierced the apple, but the tyrant, noticing a second arrow concealed in his belt, asked its purpose. "For thee," was the reply, "if the first had struck my son." Enraged, Gessler ordered him to a prison upon the opposite shore of the lake. While crossing, a storm arose, and in the extremity of the danger Gessler unloosed Tell, hoping by his skill to reach land. As they neared the rocky shore, Tell leaped out, and, hiding in the glen, shot Gessler as he passed.—This romantic story is now believed by critics to be a mere fiction; but the tradition lingers in the minds of the people, and every traveler in Switzerland is still shown the chapel that stands upon the rock to which the hero leaped from Gessler's boat.

Swiss, first dropping on their knees and offering prayer, advanced to the charge. But the forest of spears resisted every attack. Sixty of their little band had fallen, and not one of the enemy had received a wound. At this crisis, Arnold Von Winkelried rushed forward, shouting, "I will open a way; take care of my wife and children." Then, suddenly gathering in his arms as many spears as he could reach, he buried them in his bosom and bore them to the ground. The wall of steel was broken. His comrades rushed over his body to victory.

Another triumph at *Näfels*, two years later, and the Swiss confederates were left undisturbed for many years.

Growth of the Confederacy.—Lucerne, Berne, and other cities early joined the League; in the middle of the 14th century it comprised the so-called *Eight Ancient Cantons*. The victory over Charles the Bold greatly strengthened the Swiss confederation. Swiss soldiers were henceforth in demand, and thousands left the homely fare and honest simplicity of their native land to enlist as mercenaries under the banners of neighboring princes.

At the end of the 15th century, Maximilian sought to restore the imperial authority over the Swiss, but failed, and by an honorable peace practically acknowledged their independence, though it was not formally granted until the Treaty of Westphalia (p. 179).¹

¹ It is curious that though the names Swiss and Switzerland, derived from that of the chief canton, early came into use, they were not formally adopted until the nineteenth century.

ITALY IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Italy in the 10th Century, after the fall of the Carolingians, was a scene of frightful disorder. A crowd of petty sovereignties sprang up, and the rival dukes disputed for their titles with dagger and poison. When Otto the Great restored the Holy Roman Empire, the fortunes of Italy became blended with those of Germany. During the long contest between the Pope and the emperor, the feudal lords and the cities sided with either as best suited their interest. For centuries the strife of Guelf and Ghibelline convulsed the peninsula.

Power of the Popes.—We have seen how, upon the ruins of Pagan Rome, the Church founded a new empire. Many causes combined to extend her power. Amid the gloom of the dark ages, the lights of learning and piety burned brightly within monastery walls. The convents and their lands were isles of peace in a sea of violence and wrong. The monks of St. Benedict divided their time among acts of devotion, copying of manuscripts, and tilling of land. Education was almost forgotten by the laity. The clergy alone could read and write, as well as use the Latin language,—then the general medium of communication among different nations. Priests were therefore the teachers, secretaries, and ambassadors of kings.

The Church afforded a refuge to the oppressed. None was too lowly for her sympathy, while the humblest man in her ranks could rise to the highest office of trust and honor. When feudalism was triumphant, and kings were too weak and men too ignorant to oppose it, hers was the only power that could restrain the fierce baron, and enforce the Truce of God. With the gift of Pepin, the Pope became a

political prince, and as such continued to extend his Italian possessions.

The 11th century brought a great increase of papal power. A current belief (founded on Rev. xx. 1-7) that the world would come to an end in the year 1000 checked the ravages of war. Lands and money were freely bestowed upon the Church, and when the time passed and the world still stood, men's hearts, touched even through their coats of mail, softened with gratitude, and king and lord vied in erecting magnificent cathedrals, whose ruins are to-day the admiration of the world. The Crusades also greatly strengthened the power of the Pope (p. 91).

For centuries a command from Rome was obeyed throughout Christendom. When Pepin wished to depose the do-nothing sovereign, he appealed to Rome for permission; when Charlemagne was to take the title of emperor, it was the Pope who placed the crown upon his head; when William the Conqueror desired to invade England, he first secured permission from the Pope; when Henry II. longed for Ireland, Adrian IV. granted it to him on the ground that all islands belonged to the Holy See; and so late even as 1493, Pope Alexander VI. divided between the Spanish and the Portuguese their discoveries in the New World.

The papal power, however, reached its zenith in the beginning of the 13th century, under Innocent III. He acquired independent sovereignty in Italy, gave to Peter of Aragon his kingdom as a fief, compelled Philip Augustus of France to receive back the wife he had put away, crushed the Albigenses, and imposed a tribute upon John of England. He claimed to be an earthly king of kings, and the papal thunder, enjoining peace and punishing public and private offenses, rolled over every nation in Europe.

The decline of the papal power was made evident in the 14th century by the residence of the popes in France, known in church history as the Babylonish captivity (1305–77). Thus the contest between Boniface VIII. and Philip IV. ended very differently from the war of investiture between Henry IV. and Gregory VII.

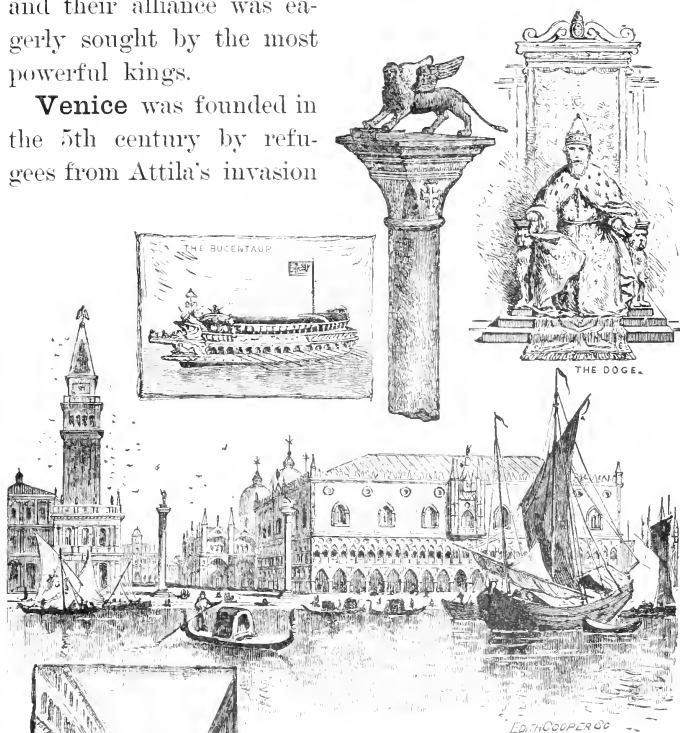
The 15th century is noted for its ecclesiastical councils. To these some of the monarchs appealed from the decisions of the Holy See. The Councils of Constance and Basle sought to change the government of the Church from an absolute to a limited sovereignty. Charles VII. of France, by a national assembly, adopted several decrees of the latter council; and the Pragmatic Sanction, as this was termed, rendered the Gallican Church more independent and national. The tendency to resist the papal authority was now increasing rapidly throughout Europe. The weakness caused by the Great Schism invited opposition, and Rome was forced to confine its political action mainly to Italian affairs.

Italian Cities.—With the decline of the imperial rule in Italy, many of its cities, like those of olden Greece, became free, strong, and powerful. Four especially—Venice, Florence, Pisa, and Genoa—attained great importance. The Italian ships brought thither the rich products of the East, and her merchants, called Lombards,¹ distributed them over Europe. The trading princes of Genoa and Venice controlled the money of the world, and became the first bankers,—the bank of Venice dating from 1171. The progress of commerce and manufacture made these independent cities, in the elegance of their buildings and the

¹ The street in London where these merchants settled is still known as Lombard Street. The three balls—the sign of a pawnbroker's shop—are the arms of Lombardy, having been assumed when the Lombards were the money-lenders of Europe.

extent of their wealth, the rivals of any nation of their time, and their alliance was eagerly sought by the most powerful kings.

Venice was founded in the 5th century by refugees from Attila's invasion



SCENES IN VENICE.



BIRCHALL DEL.

(Anc. Peo., p. 269); her ruler was a Doge; her patron saint was St. Mark. The Queen of the Adriatic early became a great naval power, rendered valuable assistance in transporting the Crusaders, carried

on sanguinary wars with Genoa, and finally reigned supreme in the Mediterranean.

In the 14th and 15th centuries the government grew into an oppressive oligarchy, the secret *Council of Ten*, like the Spartan Ephors, controlling the Doge and holding the threads of life and death. The dagger, the poisoned ring, the close gondola, the deep silent canal, the Bridge of Sighs, and the secret cell beyond,—all linger in the mysterious history of the time. But the golden period of her commerce passed when Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and discovered a new route to the Indies.

Florence, originally a colony of Roman soldiers, in the 13th century became one of the chief cities of Italy. While Venice, like Sparta of old, had an aristocratic government, that of Florence resembled democratic Athens. The Florentine jewelers, goldsmiths, and bankers brought the city renown and wealth. The citizens were curiously organized into companies or guilds of the different trades and professions, with consuls, banners, and rules of government. In case of any disturbance, the members rallied about their respective standards.

The Family of the Medici (*med'e-che*), during the 15th century, obtained control in the state, though without changing the form of government. Cosmo de' Medici (the "Father of his Country"), his grandson Lorenzo the Magnificent, and Giovanni (better known as Pope Leo X.¹), patronized literary men and artists, encouraged the copying of manuscripts, and revived a knowledge of the treasures of

¹ Leo X., second son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, was born, 1475; created cardinal, 1488; and elected Pope, 1513. He died in 1521. Leo was a munificent patron of the arts, and so great were the obligations of men of genius to his tact and generosity, that this brilliant period, one of the brightest in the annals of Europe, is known as The Medicean Era. "We may confidently assert," says an eminent historian, "that all that is most beautiful in the architecture, sculpture, or painting of modern art falls within this brief period." Music also, of which Leo was a passionate lover, was now given more scientific cultivation; classical study was revived; and the first dramas written in the Italian language were produced in the august papal presence.

Grecian architecture, sculpture, poetry, and philosophy. The study of the antique masterpieces led to the founding of a new school of art, known as the *Italian Renaissance*. In this brilliant period of Florentine history flourished Michael Angelo,—poet, sculptor, and painter; the renowned artists Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci; and the famous reformer Savonarola, afterward burned for heresy.

The Two Sicilies.—After Charlemagne's time the Arabs conquered Sicily. In the 11th century—that era of Norman adventure—the Normans invaded southern Italy, and seized the lands held by the Saracens and the Eastern emperor. They finally subdued Naples and Sicily, and founded the kingdom of the Two Sicilies: so a “French-speaking king ruled over Arabic-speaking Mohammedans and Greek-speaking Christians.”

The crown was transferred to the Hohenstaufens by the marriage of its heiress, Constance, to the emperor Henry VI. The polished court of Frederick II. made Naples the center of civilization and culture; but the youthful Conradin—the last heir of the Hohenstaufens—perished on the scaffold in its market place, in full sight of the beautiful inheritance he had lost so untimely.

The kingdom then fell to the papal nominee, Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis of France. The Sicilians, however, hated the French for their tyranny; and one day a soldier, by insulting a bride in the cathedral, enraged the populace to a revolt. As the vesper-bell rang on Easter Monday, 1282 (a date known as that of the *Sicilian Vespers*) the ever-ready Italian stiletto leaped from its sheath; scarcely a Frenchman survived the horrible massacre that followed. The Two Sicilies afterward remained separate until (1435) they were united under Alfonso V. of Aragon.

Rome was naturally the focus of the long strife between

Ghibellines and Guelfs, and thither the German kings came, arms in hand, to demand the imperial crown. During the Babylonish captivity the city was convulsed by deadly feuds between the noble families of the Orsini, Colonna, and

Savelli. The famous monuments of the elder Rome—the Arch of Titus and the Colosseum—were fortified as the strongholds of rival clans. At this time, Rienzi sought to revive the ancient republic (1347). Of humble origin, he was the friend of Pe-



THE ARCH OF TITUS.

trarch, the poet, and possessed a fiery eloquence that moved the masses. Elected tribune, he ruled for seven months, but, forgetting the simplicity of the olden time, he dressed in silk and gold, and was preceded by heralds with silver trumpets to announce his approach. The nobles rose against him, the people fell away, and the "Last of the Tribunes" was slain in a street riot.

THE CRUSADES (1095-1270).

Origin.—Palestine, the land made sacred for all time by its religious history, had, from the earliest ages of the Church, a strong attraction for believers. A pilgrimage to Jerusalem, or other hallowed spot, became the most popular of penances. In the general belief, to atone for the greatest



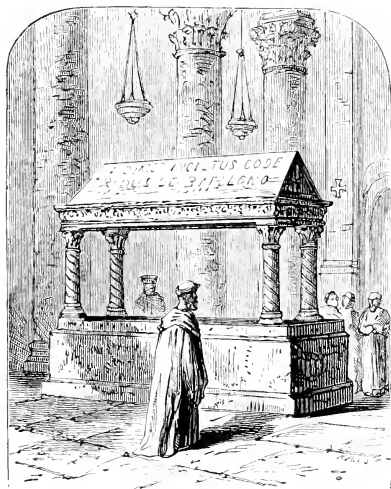
CRUSADERS ON THE MARCH.

sin, one had only to bathe in the Jordan, or spend a night on Calvary. The number of pilgrims increased about the year 1000, many desiring to await in the Holy Land "the coming of the Lord." The Saracens welcomed the pilgrims; but the Turks (p. 24), who afterward seized Palestine, inflicted upon them every outrage that fanaticism could invent. Each returning palmer told a fresh tale of horror. Peter

the Hermit, stirred by what he saw in Jerusalem, resolved to rescue the Holy Sepulcher. With bare head and feet, dressed in a coarse robe tied with a cord, bearing a crucifix in his hand, and riding an ass, this fierce monk traversed Italy and France. Pope Urban II. supported his burning appeals. At a council held at Clermont, the assembled multitude shouted with one impulse, "God wills it!" Thousands volunteered for the holy war, and fastened to their

garments the red cross, —the symbol of this sacred vow.

The First Crusade (1096)¹ numbered over half a million fighting men under Godfrey, Duke of Bouillon. There were one hundred thousand steel-clad knights, including such nobles as Robert of Normandy, eldest son of William the Conqueror; Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the Norman



THE TOMB OF GODFREY DE BOUILLON.

founder of the kingdom of Sicily; Hugh, brother of Philip I. of France; and Tancred, next to Godfrey, the pattern of chivalry.

¹ Prior to this, Peter the Hermit, and a poor knight named Walter the Penniless, set off with a motley rabble of three hundred thousand men, women, and children. Without order or discipline, they crossed Europe, robbing the inhabitants and killing the Jews wherever they went. So great was the delusion, that farmers took their families with them in carts drawn by oxen; and the children, carrying mimic swords, sported about, and shouted, whenever they saw a castle or town, "Isn't that Jerusalem?" Thousands of the fanatical crowd were slain *en route* by the outraged people. The pitiable remnant fell beneath the Turkish saber, and their bleached bones served to fortify the camp of the Second Crusaders.

This great army poured into Constantinople.¹ The emperor Alexis quickly passed his unwelcome guests into Asia. Nice and Antioch were captured after bloody sieges. Finally the Crusaders, reduced to only twenty thousand men, approached Jerusalem. When they came in sight of the Holy City, the hardy warriors burst into tears, and in a transport of joy kissed the earth. It was forty days before they could pull down the Crescent from the walls.² Then, forgetting the meekness of the Saviour whose tomb they were seeking, and in spite of Godfrey's and Tancred's protests, they massacred seventy thousand infidels, and burned the Jews in their synagogue. As evening came on, while the streets still ran with blood, they threw off their helmets, bared their feet, entered the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, sang hymns of praise, and partook of the communion.

Godfrey was now elected King of Jerusalem, but he refused to wear a crown of gold where his Master had borne one of thorns. He was therefore styled Baron of the Holy Sepulcher: on his death the crown fell to Baldwin, his brother. War was continually waged between the Christians in the Holy City and their Mohammedan neighbors. During these contests there arose two famous military religious orders,—the *Hospitallers*, who wore a white cross on a black mantle, and the *Templars*, whose badge was a red cross on a white mantle. They vowed obedience, celibacy, and poverty; to defend

SEAL OF THE TEMPLARS.³

¹ The haughty Tentons looked with contempt on the effeminate Greeks, and a rough baron rudely ascended the imperial throne, and sat down beside the monarch.

² Jerusalem had been wrested from the Turks by the Saracenic caliph of Egypt.

³ Two knights on one horse, to indicate the original poverty of the order. It afterward became rich and corrupt (p. 54).

pilgrims; and to be the first in battle and the last in retreat.

Second Crusade (1147).—Half a century passed, when the swarming Saracens seemed about to overwhelm the little Frank kingdom in Palestine. St. Bernard now preached a new crusade. Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany led across Europe three hundred thousand men.¹ But the treacherous emperor of the East cut off their food, and betrayed the Germans to the Turks amid the mountains of Cappadocia. The French, more as pilgrims than soldiers, reached Jerusalem, and, Conrad having joined Louis, the two monarchs laid siege to Damascus. Beaten back from its walls, they abandoned the crusade in humiliation.

Third Crusade (1189).—Forty years elapsed, when the Egyptian sultan, Saladin, chief of Moslem warriors for courage and courtesy, took Jerusalem. The news convulsed Europe with grief. Richard Cœur de Lion, Philip Augustus, and Frederick Barbarossa assumed the Cross. Frederick took a magnificent army across Hungary. While marching through Asia Minor, in attempting to swim a swollen stream, he was drowned.

Richard and Philip, conveying their troops by sea, had captured Acre—the key to Palestine—when the French king, jealous of the Lion-hearted's prowess and fame,² re-

¹ Louis was accompanied by Queen Eleanor (afterward divorced, and married to Henry II., p. 50), leading a body of women clad in knightly array; and Conrad was followed by a similar band, whose chief, with her gilt spurs and buskins, was called the Golden-footed Dame.

² The fame of Richard's valor lingered long in the East. Mothers stilled their children by uttering his dreaded name; and, when the Moslem and Christian host had been dust for many years, horsemen would shout to a shying steed, "Dost thou think it is King Richard?" In thousands of English homes, men idolized the Lion-hearted, in spite of his cruelty, the uselessness of his triumphs, and the weakness of his reign. Saladin's admiration, too, was roused by Richard's valor. In the midst of battle, his brother sent to beg of the English king the honor of knighthood; and when Philip and Richard lay tossing with fever in their tents before Acre, their generous foe forwarded them presents of pears and snow.

turned home. Richard pressed on, and at last reached a hill whence he could see Jerusalem, twenty miles away. Hesitating to attack the city, he covered his face and sadly turned back, declaring that he who was "unwilling to rescue was unworthy to view the sepulcher of Christ."

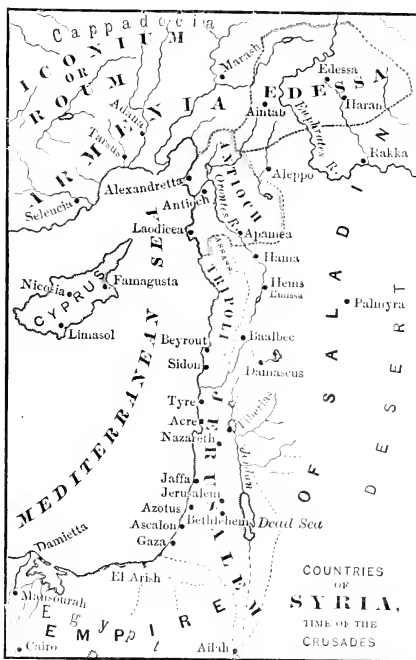
On his return through Germany, Richard was thrown into prison by Leopold, Duke of Austria, whom he had grievously insulted in Palestine.

After a time he was turned over to the German emperor, Henry VI. The English people, to ransom their gallant king, were forced to give one fourth of their incomes, and even to pawn the church plate.

This was the last crusade that reached Palestine in force. The subsequent expeditions were directed to other objects.

The Fourth Crusade (1202) consisted of French and Ger-

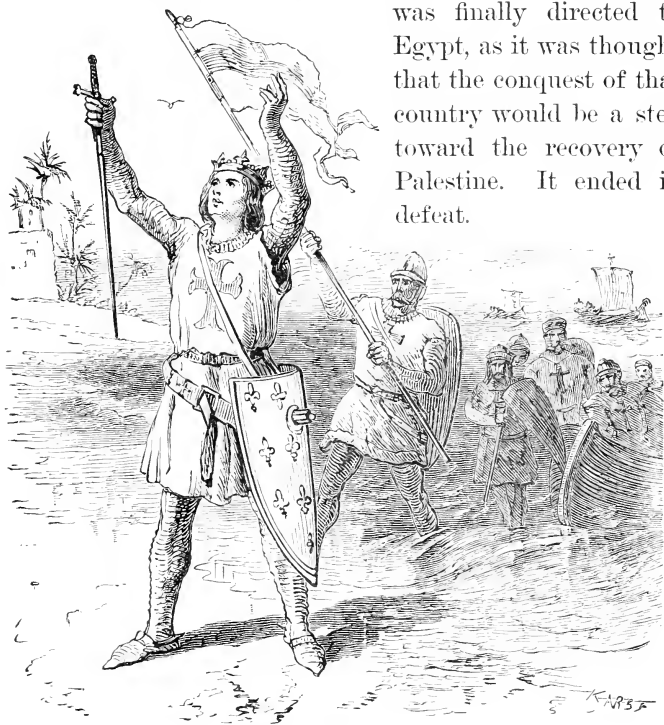
mans, under the Count of Flanders. Transports were obtained from the Venetians by agreeing to take Zara, a city of Dalmatia, for the Doge. The Crusaders next sailed for Constantinople to restore its dethroned emperor Isaac. They stormed the city, plundered its palaces, and destroyed its precious



monuments. A Latin empire was now established at Constantinople. This lasted half a century, and there seemed a hope of reuniting the Eastern and the Western Church; but the Greeks recovered the Byzantine capital (1261).

The Fifth Crusade¹ (1218), led by the King of Hungary,

was finally directed to Egypt, as it was thought that the conquest of that country would be a step toward the recovery of Palestine. It ended in defeat.



ST. LOUIS LANDING IN EGYPT.

The Sixth Crusade (1228) was a pacific one. The German emperor Frederick II., although under an interdict

¹ The Children's Crusade (1212) well illustrates the wild folly of the times. Thirty thousand French boys, led by a peasant youth named Stephen, after innumerable hardships, reached Marseilles. Here they were induced by unscrupulous traders to take ship. Instead of going to Palestine, they landed in Africa, and large numbers of these unhappy children were sold as slaves in the Saracen markets.

from the Pope, went to Palestine, by a treaty with the sultan freed Jerusalem and Bethlehem from the Infidels, and, entering the Holy City, crowned himself king. A few years later, a horde of Asiatic Turks, fleeing before the Mongols under Genghis Khan (p. 99), overwhelmed the country.

The Seventh and Eighth Crusades (1249, 1270) were conducted by St. Louis. In the first expedition he landed in Egypt, but was taken prisoner, and his release secured only by a heavy ransom; in the second, he went to Tunis, with the wild hope of baptizing its Mohammedan king. Instead of making a proselyte, he found a grave. With the death of St. Louis the spirit of the Crusades expired. Soon after, the Mohammedans recaptured Acre,—the last Christian stronghold in Palestine.

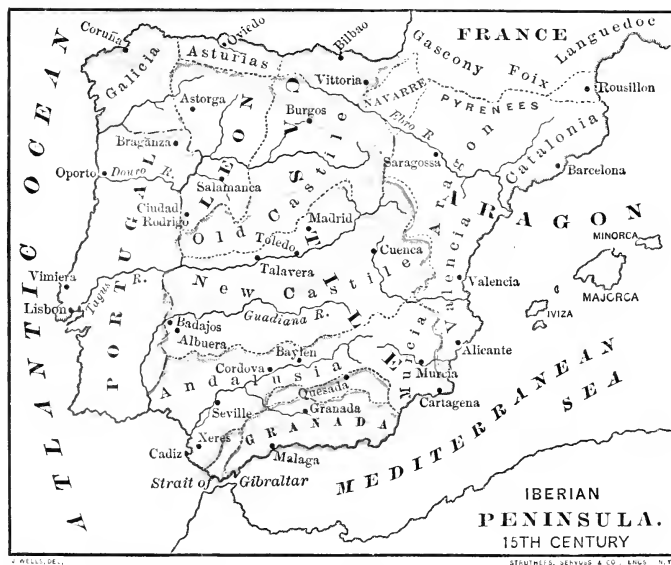
Effects of the Crusades.—Though these vast military expeditions had failed of their direct object, they had produced marked results. By staying the tide of Mohammedan conquest, they doubtless saved Europe from the horrors of Saracenic invasion. Commerce had received a great impulse, and a profitable trade had sprung up between the East and the West. The Italian cities had grown rich and powerful; while the European states, by coming into contact with the more polished nations of the East, had gained refinement and culture.

Many a haughty and despotic baron had been forced to grant municipal rights to some city, or to sell land to some rich merchant, in order to procure funds for his outfit; thus there slowly grew up, between the lord and the peasant, a strong middle class.

As the popes led in the Crusades, their influence increased immensely during this period. The departing crusaders received special privileges from the Church, while their person and property were under its immediate protection. Many knights willed their estates to a neighboring monastery, and, as few returned from the East, the Church thus acquired vast wealth.

THE MOORS IN SPAIN.

After the Moorish Conquest the conquered Visigoths found refuge among the mountains of Asturias. Gradually they gained strength, and began to win back the land of their fathers. Nowhere was the crusade against the Saracen waged more gallantly. Early in the 13th century there were firmly established in the peninsula four Christian kingdoms,—Portugal, Aragon, Castile, and Navarre,—while the Moorish power had shrunk to the single province of



Granada. The free constitutions of Aragon and Castile guaranteed the liberties of the people, and in the *Cortes*, or national assemblies of these kingdoms, the third estate secured a place long before representation was granted the commons of any other European country. The marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile (1469) laid

the foundation of the Spanish power. These illustrious sovereigns resolved to expel the Infidels from their last stronghold. Town after town was taken. The old Moorish castles and towers, impregnable to battering-ram or catapult, crumbled before the cannon of the Spanish engineers. Finally, as Ferdinand said, the time came "to pick out the last seed of the Moorish pomegranate."¹ The city of Granada was invested. After an eight-months' siege, King Abdallah gave up the keys of the Alhambra.² It was now 1492, the year of the discovery of America.

ASIA IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

The principal Asiatic nations which influenced history during this period were the Mongols and the Turks,—Tartar races whose home was on the vast plateau of mid-Asia.

The Mongols came into prominence in the 13th century, under Genghis Khan. This chief of a mere petty horde subdued the neighboring tribes, and then organized and disciplined the entire body of Tartars into one enormous army of horsemen. The result was appalling. The world had not seen since the time of Alexander such expeditions as this incomparable cavalry now made. If Attila was in Europe the "Scourge of God," much more did Genghis in Asia deserve that epithet. Fifty thousand cities, with their treasures of art, and five million human lives, were sacrificed to his thirst for plunder and power. The sons and grandsons of Genghis followed up his conquests, until the Mongol Empire finally reached from the Pacific Ocean to the banks of the Vistula in Poland.

¹ Granada is the Spanish word for pomegranate.

² The fallen monarch, riding away, paused upon a rock still known as the "Last sigh of the Moor" to take a final view of the beautiful country and the "pearl of palaces" which he had lost. As he burst into tears, his mother exclaimed, "It befits you to bewail like a woman what you could not defend like a man."

This mighty empire fell in pieces during the next century; but about 1369 there arose a descendant of Genghis named Timour, or *Tamerlane*, who sought to reunite the Mongol conquests. He conquered Great Tartary and Persia, and invaded India,—crossing the Indus where Alexander did. Turning thence into Asia Minor, he defeated the sultan of the Ottoman Turks, Bajazet (lightning), upon the plains of *Angora* (1402); but afterward, marching to invade China, he died *en route*. His armies and empire quickly melted away. The track of the ferocious conqueror in his devastating path across Asia was marked by the pyramids of human heads he erected as monuments of his victories.

Baber—a descendant of Tamerlane—followed up the conquest of India, and established his capital at Delhi. There the “Great Moguls” long ruled in magnificence, erecting mosques and tombs that are yet the admiration of the traveler. The last of the Mogul emperors died almost in our own day, being still prayed for in every mosque in India, though confined to his palace by the English army, and living upon an English pension.

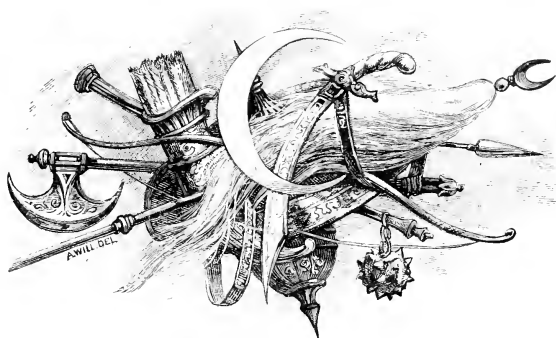
The Turks.—(1) The *Seljukian Turks*, about the time of the Norman Conquest, captured Bagdad, and their chief received from the caliph the high-sounding title of Commander of the Faithful. In 1076 they seized Jerusalem, where their brutal treatment of the pilgrims caused, as we have seen, the Crusades. The fragments of this first Turkish Empire were absorbed in the dominions of Genghis Khan. (2) The *Ottoman Turks* were so named from Othman (1299–1326), the founder of their empire. His son Orchan created the famous force of Janizaries¹ (new troops), and a

¹ The stoutest and handsomest of the captive youth were selected annually for service in the army. Educated in the religion of their masters and trained to arms, they formed a powerful body-guard, like the Prætorian Guard of Rome. It was the terror of Europe.

body of his warriors, crossing the Hellespont, gained a footing on European soil,—the first in Turkish history (1356); his grandson Amurath captured Adrianople; his great-grandson, Bajazet, in the battle of *Nicopolis* (1396), routed the chivalry of Hungary and France, ravaged Greece, and was finally checked only by the dreaded Tamerlane.

Half a century afterward, Mohammed II., with over 250,000 Turks, besieged Constantinople. Artillery of unwonted size and power battered its walls for fifty-three days. The Janizaries at length burst through. The emperor Constantine, the last of the Cæsars, was slain, sword in hand, in the breach; and the Byzantine Empire, that had lasted over a thousand years, fell to rise no more. The Crescent now replaced the Cross on the dome of St. Sophia.

The fall of Constantinople (1453) marks the close of the middle ages; but there was a *transition period* from the middle ages to modern history, the length and date of which varied among the different nations. Each people had its own dawn and sunrise, and for itself entered into the day of modern civilization and progress.

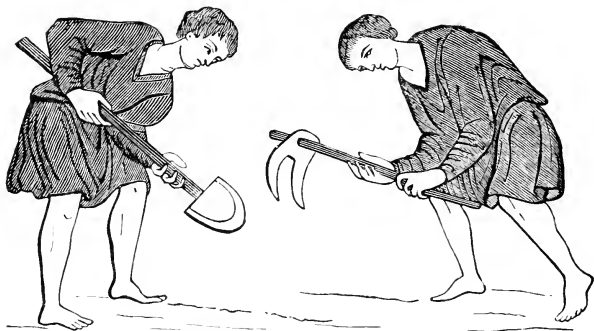


MOHAMMEDAN EMBLEMS.

MEDIÆVAL CIVILIZATION.

Rise of Feudalism.—The Roman government had sometimes granted lands on condition of military service; the Franks followed a chief as their personal lord. Out of these two old-time customs there grew up a new system which was destined to influence society and politics throughout Europe for centuries. This was

The Feudal System.—We have seen how the brave freemen who followed the Teuton chief shared in the land acquired by conquest, each man's portion being called his *Allod* (from *od*, an estate), and becoming his personal property. But in those troublous times men



SERFS OF THE 12TH CENTURY (FROM MS. OF THE TIME.)

had to fight to retain what they had won. So it came to pass that a king, instead of keeping a great standing army to guard his scattered possessions or to prosecute foreign wars, granted a part of his estates as *fiefs* or *feuds* to his nobles. In this transaction he, as their *suzerain*, promised to them justice and protection, and they, as his *vassals*, agreed not only to serve him in person, but to furnish upon his call a certain number of armed men ready and equipped for active military service. In like manner the vassals of the Crown granted estates to their followers; and in time most of the allodial owners were glad to swear fealty to some great lord in order to secure his protection. Powerful nobles became vassals of kings, and kings themselves were vassals of other kings.—as was William the Conqueror, who, as Duke of Normandy, owed homage to the dissolute Philip I. of France. Not laymen alone, but bishops and monastic bodies, held their lands by military service, and were bound to furnish their quota of soldiers.

These different bands of armed men, collected together, formed the feudal army of the kingdom. Thus, in place of the solid, highly organized Roman legion, there was a motley array furnished and commanded by the great nobles of the realm, each of whom was followed by an enormous retinue of knights, esquires, and lesser nobles, leading the military contingent of their respective manors or estates.

In France, by the 11th century, feudalism was full grown, and its evils were at their height. The country was covered by a complete network of fiefs, and even the most simple privileges, such as the right to cross a certain ford, or to fish in some small creek, were held by feudal tenure. In this way one lord was frequently both suzerain and vassal to his neighbor lord. As the royal power had become almost paralyzed, the French dukes and counts ruled their compact domains like independent kings. Sheltered in their castles and surrounded by their followers, they made war, formed alliances, and levied taxes at their pleasure.

In England the Norman Conqueror, knowing well the French misrule, prevented a like result by making all landholders, great and small, owe direct fealty to himself, and by widely scattering the estates of each tenant-in-chief.¹

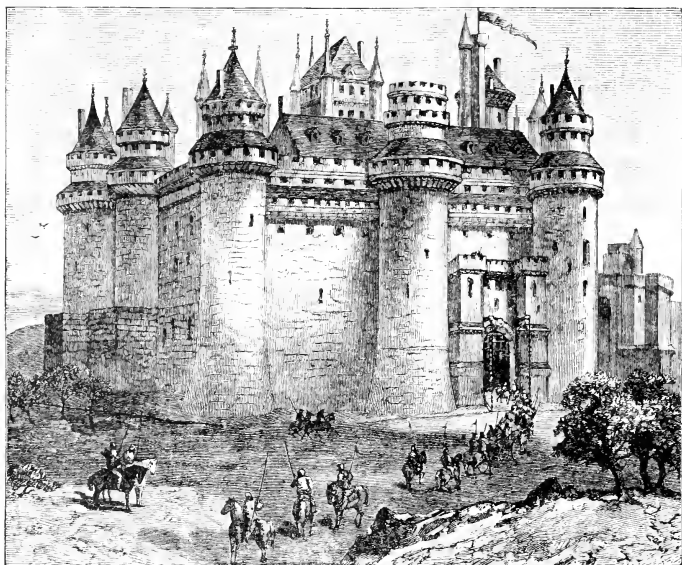
Feudal Ceremonies.—*Homage, Fealty, Investiture.*—When a vassal received a fief, he did homage therefor on bended knee, ungirt and bareheaded, placing his joined hands in those of his lord, and promising to become "his man" from that day forth. The vassal was bound, among his other obligations, always to defend his lord's good name, to give him his horse if dismounted in battle, to be his hostage if he were taken prisoner, and to pay him specified sums of money (aids) on particular occasions,—such as that of the marriage of the lord's eldest daughter, or the knighting of the lord's eldest son.

Fealty did not include the obligation to become the lord's man, nor to pledge everything for his ransom; it was sworn by tenants for life, while *Homage* was restricted to those who could bequeath their estates. *Investiture* was the placing in possession of an estate, either actually or symbolically, as by delivering a stone, turf, or branch.

The Castle has been called the symbol of feudalism. A strong stone fortress, crowning some high, jagged cliff or beetling promontory, inclosed by massive, parapeted walls, girdled by moats and bristling with towers, it may well be likened to a haughty feudal lord. Bold and stout-hearted must have been the foe that ventured its assault.

¹ Compare with the policy of Cleisthenes (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 124).—The distinction between French and English feudal obligations may be illustrated thus: Let A be the sovereign, B the tenant-in-chief, and C the under-tenant. In France, if B warred with A, C was bound to aid, not A, but B; while in England, C was required to aid A against B.

There were sometimes, as at Montlhéry in France, five inclosures to pass before the *donjon keep* was reached. Over this great tower floated the banner of its lord, and within its stone walls, often ten feet thick, were stored his choicest treasures. Its entrance door, set high up in the wall, was guarded by a solid, narrow, outer staircase, a drawbridge, and a portecullis; its near approach was protected by mounted battlements and a machicolated parapet. Intrenched in one of these grim strongholds a baron could, and often did, defy the king



A MEDIÆVAL CASTLE.

himself. The Crusades broke the strength of early feudalism, and created

Chivalry, which, as an institution, attained its height in the 14th century. In it were combined the old Germanic pride in prowess and respect for woman; the recent religious fervor; a growing love for splendor, poetry, and music; an exclusive, aristocratic spirit; and a hitherto disregarded sentiment of duty toward the weak and the oppressed. Its chief exponent was

The Knight, who, at his best, was the embodiment of valor, honor, gallantry, and munificence. Brave, truthful, and generous in character; high-bred and courteous in manner; strong, athletic, and grace-

ful in person; now glittering in polished steel and fiercely battering the walls of Jerusalem; now clad in silken jupon and tilting with rib-boned lance at the gorgeous tournament; always associated with the sound of martial music, the jingle of armor, and the clashing of swords, or with the rustle of quaintly robed ladies in castle halls,—the ideal chevalier rides through the middle ages, the central hero of all its romance. We see him first, a lad of seven years, joining a group of high-born pages and damsels who cluster about a fair lady in a stately castle. Here he studies music, chess, and knightly courtesies, and commits to memory his Latin Code of Manners. He carries his lady's messages, sends and recalls her falcon in the chase, and imitates the gallantry he sees about him. When a pilgrim-harper with fresh tidings from the Holy Land knocks at the castle gate, and sits down by the blazing fire in the great pillared hall, hung with armor, banners, and emblazoned standards, or is summoned to a cushion on the floor of my lady's chamber, the little page's heart swells with emulous desire as he hears of the marvelous exploits of the Knights of the Holy Grail, or listens to the stirring Song of Roland. At fourteen he is made squire, and assigned to some office about the castle,—the most menial duty being an honor in the knightly apprenticeship. His physical, moral, and military education becomes more rigid. Seated on his horse, he learns to manage arms, scale walls, and leap ditches. He leads the war-steed of his lord to battle or the tournament, and "rivets with a sigh the armor he is forbidden to wear." At twenty-one his probation is ended. Fasting, ablution, confession, communion, and a night in prayer at the altar, precede the final ceremony. He takes the vow to defend the faith, to protect the weak, to honor womankind; his belt is slung around him; his golden spurs are buckled on; he kneels; receives the accolade,¹



COSTUME (14TH AND 15TH CENTURIES).

¹ This was a blow on the neck of the candidate with the flat of a sword, given by the conferring prince, who at the same time pronounced the words: "I dub thee knight, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost."

and rises a chevalier. His horse is led to the church door, and, amid the shouts of the crowd and the peal of trumpets, he rides away into the wide world to seek the glory he hopes to win.—Not many knights, it is true, were like Godfrey and Bayard. The very virtues of chivalry often degenerated into vices; but any approach to courtesy in this violent age was a great advance upon its general lawlessness.¹

The Tournament was to the mediæval knight what public games had been to the Greek, and the gladiatorial contest to the Roman. Every device was used to produce a gorgeous spectacle. The painted and gilded lists were hung with tapestries, and were overlooked by towers and galleries, decorated with hangings, pennants, shields, and banners. Here, dressed in their richest robes, were gathered kings, queens, princes, knights, and ladies. Kings-at-arms, heralds, and pursuivants-at-arms—the reporters of the occasion—stood within or just without the arena; musicians were posted in separate stands; and valets and sergeants were stationed everywhere, to keep order, to pick up and replace broken weapons, and to raise unhorsed knights. At the sound of the clarions the competing chevaliers, arrayed in full armor and seated on magnificently caparisoned horses, with great plumes nodding above their helmets and ladies' ribbons floating from their lances, rode slowly and solemnly into the lists, followed by their several esquires, all gayly dressed and mounted. Sometimes the combatants were preceded by their chosen ladies, who led them in by gold or silver chains. When all was ready, the heralds cried, "*Laissez-les aller*" (let them go), the trumpets pealed, and from the opposite ends of the arena the knights dashed at full speed to meet with a clash in the center. Shouts of cheer from the heralds, loud flourishes from the musicians, and bursts of applause from thousands of lookers-on, rewarded every brilliant feat of arms or horsemanship. And when the conquering knight bent to receive the prize from the hand of some fair lady, the whole air trembled with the cries of "honor to the brave," and "glory to the victor." But tournaments were not all joyous play. Almost always some were carried dead or dying from the lists, and in a single German tourney sixty knights were killed.

Arms, Armor, and Military Engines.—*Mail armor* was composed of metal rings sewed upon cloth or linked together in the shape of garments. Afterward metal plates and caps were intermixed with it,

¹ The knight who had been accused and convicted of cowardice and falsehood incurred a fearful degradation. Placed astride a beam, on a public scaffold, under the eyes of assembled knights and ladies, he was stripped of his armor, which was broken to pieces before his eyes and thrown at his feet. His spurs were cast into the filth, his shield was fastened to the croup of a cart-horse and dragged in the dust, and his charger's tail was cut off. He was then carried on a litter to the church, the burial service was read over him, and he was published to the world as a dead coward and traitor.

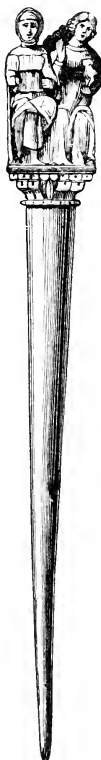
and in the 15th century a complete suit of *plate armor* was worn. This consisted of several pieces of highly tempered and polished steel, so fitted, jointed, and overlapped as to protect the whole body. It was fastened over the knight with hammer and pincers, so he could neither get in nor out of it alone, and it was so cumbrous and unwieldy that, once down, he could not rise again. Thus he was "a castle of steel on his war-horse, a helpless log when overthrown." Boiled leather was sometimes used in place of metal. Common soldiers wore leather or quilted jackets, and an iron skull-cap.

The longbow was to the middle ages what the rifle is to our day. The English excelled in its use, and their enemies sometimes left their walls unmanned, because, as was said, "no one could peep but he would have an arrow in his eye before he could shut it." The Genoese were famous crossbow-men. The bolts of brass and iron sent from their huge crossbows would pass through the head-piece of a man-at-arms and pierce his brain. Many military arts and defenses used from the earliest times were still in vogue, and so remained until gunpowder was invented. Indeed, a mediæval picture of a siege does not strikingly differ from Ninevite sculptures or Theban paintings, either in the nature of its war-engines or in the perspective art of the drawing itself.

Education and Literature.—During the 11th and 12th centuries, schools and seminaries of learning were multiplied, and began to expand into universities; that of Paris, the "City of Letters," taking the lead. Now, also, arose the *Scholastic Philosophy*, which applied the logic of Aristotle to intricate problems in theology. *The Schoolmen* began with Peter Lombard (d. 1160), a professor in the University of Paris, where he had studied under the brilliant Abelard,—an eloquent lecturer, now remembered chiefly as the lover of Heloise. Lombard has been styled the "Euclid of Scholasticism." Another noted schoolman was Albertus Magnus, a German of immense learning, whose scientific researches brought upon him the reputation of a sorcerer. The doctrines of Thomas Aquinas, a Dominican monk, and of Duns Scotus, a Franciscan, divided the schools, and the reasonings and counter-reasonings of Thomists and Scotists filled countless pages with logical subtleties. The vast tomes of scholastic theology left by the 13th century schoolmen "amaze and appall the mind with the enormous accumulation of intellectual industry, ingenuity, and toil, of which the sole result to posterity is this barren amazement." Roger Bacon was at this time startling the age by his wonderful discoveries in science. Accused, like Albert the Great, of dealing with magic, he paid the penalty of his advanced views by ten years in prison.

While in monastery and university the schoolmen racked their brains with subtle and profound distinctions, the gay *French Troubadours*, equipped with their ribboned guitars, were flitting from castle to castle,

where the gates were always open to them and their flattering rhymes. *The Trouvères* supplied the age with allegories, comic tales, and long romances, while the German *Minnesänger* (love-singers) numbered kings and princes among their poets.



STYLUS.¹
(13th and 14th
Centuries.)

In Scandinavia, the mythological poems or *sagas* of the 8th-10th centuries were collected into what is called the older Edda (11th or 12th century); and afterward appeared the younger Edda,—whose legends linked the Norse race with the Trojan heroes (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 115). The German *Nibelungenlied* (12th century) was a collection of the same ancestral legends woven into a grand epic by an unknown poet.

To the 13th and 14th centuries respectively, belong the great poets Dante and Chaucer. About this time a strong desire for learning was felt among the common people, it being for them the only road to distinction. The children of burghers and artisans, whose education began in the little public school attached to the parish church, rose to be lawyers, priests, and statesmen. The nobility generally cared little for scholarship. A gentleman could always employ a secretary, and the glory won in a crusade or a successful tilt in a tournament was worth more to a mediæval knight than the book-lore of ages. Every monastery had a “writing-room,” where the younger monks were employed in transcribing manuscripts. After awhile copying became a trade, the average price being about four cents a leaf for prose, and two for verse,—the page containing thirty lines. Adding price of paper, a book of prose cost not far from fifty cents a leaf.

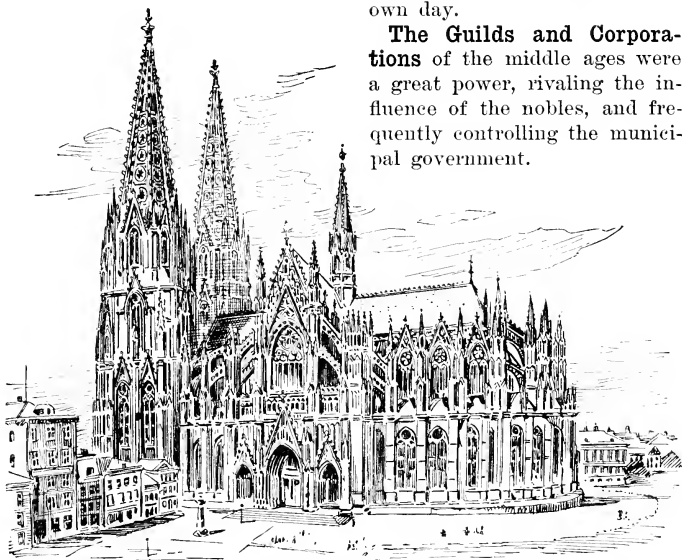
Arts and Architecture.—As learning was confined mostly to the Church, art naturally found its chief expression in cathedral building. Toward the close of the 12th century, the round-arched, Romanesque style gave place to the pointed-arched, spired, and buttressed edifice. The use of painted glass for windows crowned the glory of the Gothic cathedral.² Religious ideas

¹ The style, or stylus, was the chief instrument of writing during the middle ages. With the pointed end the letters were cut on the waxen tablet, while the rounded head was used in making erasures. If the writing was to be preserved, it was afterward copied by a scribe on parchment or vellum with a rude reed pen, which was dipped in a colored liquid. The style was sometimes made of bone or ivory, sometimes of glass or iron, while those used by persons of rank were made of gold or silver, and were often ornamented with curious figures.

² The Italians relied more on brilliant frescoes and Mosaics for interior effect;

were expressed in designs and carvings. Thus the great size and loftiness of the interior symbolized the Divine Majesty; the high and pointed towers represented faith and hope; and, as the rose was made to signify human life, everywhere on windows, doors, arches, and columns, the cross sprang out of a rose. So, too, the altar was placed at the East, whence the Saviour came, and was raised three steps to indicate the Trinity. These mighty structures were the work often of centuries. The Cologne Cathedral was begun in 1248; its chancel was finished in 1320; but the lofty spire was not completed till our own day.

The Guilds and Corporations of the middle ages were a great power, rivaling the influence of the nobles, and frequently controlling the municipal government.



COLOGNE CATHEDRAL.

Manners and Customs.—*Extravagance* in dress, equipage, and table marked all high life. Only the finest cloths, linens, silks, and velvets, adorned with gold, pearls, and embroidery, satisfied the tastes of the nobility.¹ In the midst of the Hundred-Years' War England

the French and English cathedrals excelled in painted glass. "Nothing can compare with the party-colored glories of the windows of a perfect Gothic cathedral, where the whole history of the Bible is written in the hues of the rainbow."—*Fergusson*.

¹ Men took the lead in fashion. Once peaked shoes were worn, the points two feet long; then the toes became six inches broad. A fop of the 14th century "wore long-pointed shoes, fastened to his knees by gold and silver chains; hose of one color on one leg and of another on the other; knee breeches; a coat one half white, the

and France carried on a rivalry of splendor and expense. Delicacies from Constantinople, Palestine, Phœnicia, Alexandria, and Babylon were served at royal entertainments. The tables blazed with gold and

silver plate, yet had not the refinement of a fork, and fingers were thrust into the rich dishes or tore the greasy meats into bits. A knight and his lady often ate from the same plate, and soaked their crusts of bread in the same cup of soup. Men and women sat at table with their hats on, although it was the height of bad manners to keep on gloves during a visit, and a personal insult to take the hand of a friend in the street without first ungloving. Great households were kept up, and kings entertained as many as 10,000 persons daily at the royal board. The lower orders aped the

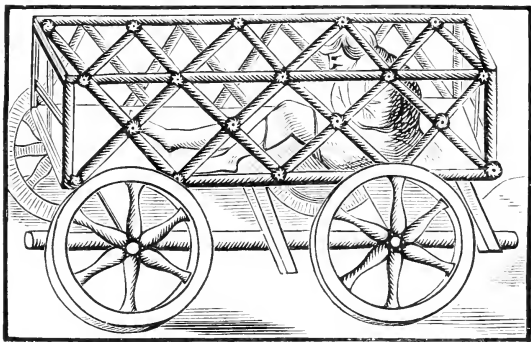
higher, and *Sumptuary Laws* were made to protect the privileges of the nobility, not only in dress but also in food.



MALE COSTUME.
(11th and 12th Centuries.)



FEMALE COSTUME.
(11th and 12th Centuries.)



A MOVABLE IRON CAGE (15TH CENTURY).

other blue or black ; a long beard ; a silk hood buttoned under his chin, embroidered with quaint figures of animals, and ornamented with gold, silver, and precious stones."

Punishments were barbarous and severe. The gallows and the rack were ever at work. Chopping off of hands, putting out of eyes, and cutting off of ears, were common affairs. The most ingenious tortures were devised, and hanging was the mildest death allowed to criminals.

Summary (see p. 9).—The 5th and 6th centuries were characterized by the settlements of the Teutons in Roman territory. The 7th century was marked by the rise of Mohammed and the spread of the Saracen Empire. The 8th century saw the growth of the Frankish power, culminating in the empire of Charlemagne. The 9th century witnessed the welding of the Saxon sovereignties into England; the breaking-up of Charlemagne's empire into France, Germany, and Italy; and the founding of Russia by Normans. The 10th century brought Rollo into Normandy, and Capet to the French throne. The 11th century was made memorable by the Norman Conquest of England; the overthrow of the Greek-Saracen rule in southern Italy; and the war of the investiture in Germany. The 12th century saw the Crusades at their height, and the Italian republics in their glory. The 13th century built up France, and granted Magna Charta to England. The 14th century witnessed the Hundred-Years' War and free Switzerland. The 15th century is memorable for the deliverance of France; the Wars of the Roses; the Conquest of Granada, with the rise of Spain; the fall of Constantinople; and the discovery of America.

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and Middle Ages.—*Freeman's Norman Conquest*.—*Thompson's History of England* (*Freeman's Historical Course*).—*Thierry's History of the Norman Conquest*.—*Palgrave's Normandy and England*.—*Cobb's History of the Norman Kings of England*.—*Green's Making of England*.—*Freeman's Old English History*.—*The Norman Kings and Feudal System*; the *Early Plantagenets*; *Edward III.*; *Houses of Lancaster and York* (*Epochs of History Series*).—*Smith's History of English Institutions* (*Historical Hand-book Series*).—*Burton's History of Scotland* (the standard authority).—*Strickland's Lives of the Queens of England*.—*Green's Lives of the Princesses of England*.—*St. John's Four Conquests of England*.—*Shakspeare's King John* (*Arthur*); also *Henry IV.*, *Henry V.*, *Henry VI.*, and *Richard III.*—*Butcher's Last of the Barons*.—*Kingsley's Hereward, the Last of the Saxons*.—*The "Babee's Book."*

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CHRONOLOGY.

FIFTH CENTURY (Concluded).

(See *Anc. Peo.*, p. 312.)

	A. D.
Attila defeated in battle of Châlons..	451
Clovis wins battle of Soissons.....	486
Theodoric with the Ostrogoths conquers Italy.....	489-493
Clovis becomes a Christian	496

SIXTH CENTURY.

Paris, Clovis's capital	510
Arthur in Britain (conjectured)	515
Time of Justinian.....	527-565
Belisarius in Africa, 533; in Italy..	536-539
Silk Manufacture brought to Europe	551
End of Ostrogoth Kingdom in Italy.	553
Lombards conquer Italy	568

	A. D.
Birth of Mohammed	570
St. Augustine introduces Christianity into Britain.....	596

SEVENTH CENTURY.

The Hegira	622
Mohammed's Death.....	632
Omar captures Jerusalem.....	637
Sixth General Council, at Constantinople	680

EIGHTH CENTURY.

Saracens invade Spain.....	711
Martel overthrows Saracens at Tours.....	732

	A. D.
Pepin the Short becomes king.—	
Carlovingian Dynasty founded . . .	752
Gift of Exarchate to Pope	754
Emirate of Cordova founded	755
Charlemagne becomes sole King of	
the Franks	771
Battle of Roncesvalles	778
Haroun al Raschid, caliph	786
Seventh General Council, at Nice . . .	787
Danes first land in Britain, about . .	789
Charlemagne crowned at Rome	800

NINTH CENTURY.

Death of Charlemagne	814
Egbert, first King of England	827
Battle of Fontenay	841
Treaty of Verdun	843
Russia founded by Ruric	862
Alfred, King of England	871-901

TENTH CENTURY.

Alfred's Death	901
Rollo the Norseman founds Nor-	
mandy	911
Otto the Great, Emperor of Ger-	
many	936-973
Hugh Capet crowned; founds Cape-	
tian Dynasty	987

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

Canute (Knut), King of England 1017-35	
Normans conquer South Italy	1040
Edward the Confessor restores Sax-	
on Line in England	1042
Guelf and Ghibelline Fend begins . .	1061
Normans conquer England	1066
Turks capture Jerusalem	1076
First Crusade	1096

TWELFTH CENTURY.

Guiscard of Normandy, King of	
Naples	1102
Knights Templars founded	1118
Second Crusade	1147
Plantagenet Line founded	1154
Henry II. invades Ireland	1171
Third Crusade	1189

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

Fourth Crusade	1202
War against Albigenes	1208

	A. D.
Battle of Runnymede.—John grants	
Magna Charta	1215
Fifth Crusade	1218
Sixth Crusade	1224
Genghis Khan.—Gregory IX. estab-	
lishes Inquisition	1233
Seventh Crusade	1249
Mongols sack Bagdad	1258
Eighth Crusade	1270
Hapsburg Line founded	1273
Teutonic Order conquers Prussia . .	1281
Edward I. conquers Wales	1283
Turks capture Acre.—End of Cru-	
sades	1291
Edward conquers Scotland	1295

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

Pope removes to Avignon	1306
Wallace executed	1305
Battle of Bannockburn	1314
Battle of Morgarten	1315
Hundred-Years' War	1328-1453
Battle of Crécy	1346
Calais surrendered	1347
Rienzi, Tribune of Rome	1347
Battle of Poitiers	1356
Pope returns to Rome	1377
Wat Tyler's Insurrection	1381
Battle of Sempach	1386

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

John Huss burned	1415
Battle of Agincourt	1415
Jeanne D'Arc at Orleans	1428
Charles VII. crowned at Rheims . . .	1429
Jeanne d'Arc burned	1431
Capture of Constantinople	1453
Wars of the Roses	1455-85
Gutenberg prints the first book . . .	1456
Battles of Granson, Morat, and Nan-	
cy (Death of Charles the Bold) . . .	1476-77
Lorenzo de' Medici at Florence	1478
Union of Castile and Aragon under	
Ferdinand and Isabella	1479
Battle of Bosworth.—Tudor Line	
founded	1485
Fall of Granada	1492
Columbus discovers America	1492
Charles VIII. invades Italy	1494
Vasco da Gama doubles Cape of	
Good Hope	1497
Savonarola burned	1498

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.		FRANCE.		GERMANY.	
William I.....	1066	Philip I.....	1060	Henry IV.....	1056
William II.....	1087				
Henry I.....	1100	Louis VI.....	1108	Henry V.....	1106
Stephen.....	1135	Louis VII.....	1137	Lothaire II.....	1125
Henry II.....	1154			Conrad III.....	1138
Richard I.....	1189	Philip II.....	1180	Frederick Barbarossa	1152
John.....	1199			Henry VI.....	1190
				Philip.....	1197
Henry III.....	1216	Louis VIII.....	1223	Otto IV.....	1209
		Louis IX.....	1226	Frederick II.....	1215
Edward I.....	1272	Philip III.....	1270	Conrad IV.....	1250
		Philip IV.....	1285	Rudolf.....	1273
				Adolphus.....	1292
				Albert I.....	1298
Edward II.....	1307	Louis X.....	1314	Henry VII.....	1308
		Philip V.....	1316	Lewis IV.....	1314
Edward III.....	1327	Charles IV.....	1322	Frederick the Fair...	1314
		Philip VI.....	1328		
		John.....	1350	Charles IV.....	1347
Richard II.....	1377	Charles V.....	1364		
Henry IV.....	1399	Charles VI.....	1380	Wenceslaus.....	1378
Henry V.....	1413	Charles VII.....	1422	Rupert.....	1400
Henry VI.....	1422			Sigismund.....	1410
Edward IV.....	1461	Louis XI.....	1461	Albert II.....	1438
Edward V.....	1483	Charles VIII.....	1483	Frederick III.....	1440
Richard III.....	1483				
Henry VII.....	1485	Louis XII.....	1498	Maximilian I.....	1493



GOLD FLORIN, LOUIS IX.

MODERN PEOPLES.

“The human mind wrote History and this must read it. The Sphinx must solve her own riddle. Every fact narrated must correspond to something in me to be intelligible. As we read, we must become Greek, Roman, Turk, priest, king, martyr, and executioner; we must fasten these images to some reality in our secret experience, or we shall learn nothing rightly. Each new fact, and each political moment, has a meaning for us. We may see our own vices without heat in the distant persons of Solomon, Alcibiades, and Catiline. We are to read History actively, not passively; to esteem our own life the text, and books the commentary. Thus compelled, the Muse of History will utter oracles as never to those who do not respect themselves. I have no expectation that any man will read History aright who thinks that what was done in a remote age, by men whose names have resounded far, has any deeper sense than what he is doing to-day.”

Emerson.

BLACKBOARD ANALYSIS.

MODERN PEOPLES.

Introduction.

The 16th Century.

1. THE FRENCH IN ITALY.

1. Charles VIII.
2. Louis XII.
3. Francis I.

2. THE AGE OF CHARLES V.

1. The Rivalry of Charles and Francis.
2. The Reformation.

3. THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

1. The Netherlands.
2. The Reformation.
3. The Duke of Alva.
4. The Forty-Years' War.

4. THE FRENCH CIVIL-RELIGIOUS WARS.

1. The Reformation in France.
2. Francis II.
3. Charles IX.
4. Henry III.
5. Henry IV.

5. ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.

1. Henry VII.
2. Henry VIII.
3. Edward VI.
4. Mary.
5. Elizabeth.

The 17th Century.

1. THE THIRTY-YEARS' WAR.

1. Causes.
2. Opening of the War.
3. Imperial Triumph.
 - a. Tilly.
 - b. Leipsic.
 - c. Wallenstein.
 - d. Lützen.
 - e. Death of Gustavus.
4. Gustavus Adolphus.
5. Remainder of War.
6. Peace of Westphalia.

2. THE ABSOLUTE MONARCHY IN FRANCE.

1. Age of Richelieu.
2. Age of Louis XIV.

3. ENGLAND UNDER THE STUARTS. PERIOD OF THE CIVIL WAR.

1. James I.
2. Charles I.
3. The Civil War.
4. The Commonwealth.
5. The Restoration. Charles II.
6. James II.
7. Revolution of 1688. William and Mary.
8. Anne.

The 18th Century.

1. PETER THE GREAT AND CHARLES XII.

2. RISE OF PRUSSIA: AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

3. ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

1. George I.
2. George II.
3. George III.
4. See 19th Century.

4. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. Louis XV.
2. Louis XVI.
3. French Revolution.
 - a. Abolition of Monarchy.
 - b. E'gn of Terror.
 - c. Directory.
 - d. Consulate.
 - e. Empire.

The 19th Century.

1. FRANCE.

- (See Analysis of 18th Cent.)
1. The Restoration.
2. The Second Republic.
3. The Second Empire.
4. The Third Republic.

2. ENGLAND.

3. GERMANY.

4. ITALY.

5. TURKEY.

6. GREECE.

7. THE NETHERLANDS.

8. RUSSIA.

9. JAPAN.

[The subdivisions of these general topics may be filled in from the titles of the paragraphs in the text, as the student proceeds.]

MODERN PEOPLES.



GLOBE ILLUSTRATING THE GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE OF THE 15TH CENTURY.

INTRODUCTION.

The End of the 15th and the Beginning of the 16th Century formed the springtime of a new era. It was an epoch of important events: in 1491, Charles VIII. married Anne of Brittany, which united to the French crown the last of the great feudal provinces; in 1492, Granada fell into the hands of Ferdinand and Isabella, a conquest which established the Spanish monarchy; in the same year, Columbus

discovered America, which gave a new world to the old ; in 1494, the Italian wars commenced, and with them the battles and rivalries of the chief European nations ; in 1508, Raphael and Michael Angelo were painting in the Vatican at Rome, which marked a revolution in art ; in 1517, Luther posted his 95 theses on the Wittenberg cathedral door, and so inaugurated the Reformation ; in 1521, Magellan circumnavigated the globe, thus giving correct geographical ideas ; finally, about 1530, Copernicus finished his theory of the solar system, which was the beginning of a new epoch in science.

The Causes of this wonderful change were numerous. The Crusades kindled a spirit of trade, adventure, and conquest. Travel at the East enlarged the general knowledge of the earth. The use of the mariner's compass emboldened sailors to undertake long voyages. Large cities had risen to be centers of freedom, commerce, manufactures, and wealth. The revival of learning in Italy stirred men's thoughts in every land. The fall of Constantinople scattered the treasures of Greek literature over the West ; learned men, driven from the East, settled in Europe ; the philosophy and arts of Athens and Rome were studied with zest ; each nation felt, in turn, the impulse of the Renaissance ; and a succession of painters, sculptors, poets, and historians arose such as Christendom had never seen. There were now nearly forty universities in Europe, and students traveling to and fro among them distributed the new ideas, which gradually found their way into the minds of the masses. Above all else, two inventions revolutionized Europe.

*Gunpowder*¹ pierced the heaviest armor, and shattered the

¹ Gunpowder seems to have been known to the Chinese at an early day, though Roger Bacon, an English monk of the 13th century, is called its inventor. Its application to war is ascribed to a German named Schwartz (1330), but long before that the Moors used artillery in the defense of Cordova. The English at Crécy had three small cannon. The French under Louis XI. invented trunnions, a light carriage, and

strongest wall. The foot-soldier with his musket could put to flight the knight-errant with his lance. Standing armies of infantry and artillery took the place of the feudal levy. This changed the whole art of war. The king was now stronger than the noble.



THE INVENTION OF PRINTING

Printing by means of movable types was invented by Gu'tenberg of Mentz, who issued in 1456 a Latin Bible. Books, which had hitherto been laboriously copied on parchment, were now rapidly multiplied, and the cost was greatly reduced. Cheaper books made new readers. Knowledge became more widely diffused.

The Political Condition of Europe was that of great

cast-iron shot, thus equipping a weapon serviceable in the field. Charles VIII. owed his rapid conquest of Italy to his park of light artillery that was in striking contrast to the cumbersome Italian bombards dragged about with great difficulty by oxen and firing stone balls.

monarchies, each ready to turn its forces against the others. The so-called "States-System" now arose. Its object was the preservation of the Balance of Power, *i. e.*, the preventing any one state from getting a superiority over the rest. Thence came alliances and counter-alliances among the different nations, and various schemes of diplomacy that often bewilder the student of modern history.

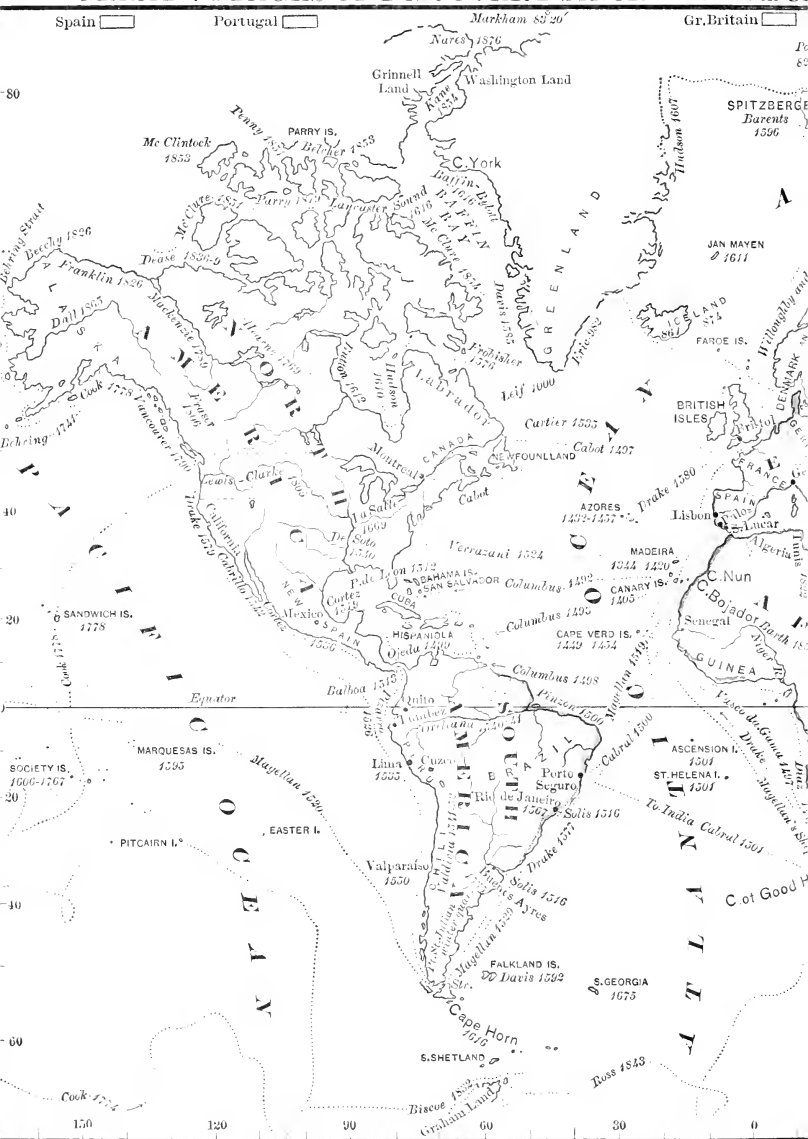
Maritime Discoveries.—Up to this time, the known world comprised only Europe, southwestern Asia, and a strip of northern Africa. The rich products of the East were still brought to the West by way of Alexandria and Venice. Cape Nun, on the coast of Africa, by its very name declared the belief that there was *nothing* attainable beyond. The sea at the equator was thought to be boiling hot, and the maps represented the Occident as bristling with monsters.

The Portuguese sailors, under the auspices of Prince Henry and King John II., ventured each voyage further south, crossed the dreaded equator, and, sailing under the brighter stars of a new hemisphere, league by league explored the African coast, until finally Diaz (1487) doubled the continent. The southern point he well named the Cape of Storms; but King John, seeing now a way to reach India by sea, rechristened it the Cape of Good Hope. Eleven years later Vasco da Gama realized this sanguine expectation. He rounded the Cape, sailed across the Indian Ocean, landed on the Malabar coast, and returned home with a cargo of Indian products. The old routes across the Mediterranean, through Egypt and the Levant, were now nearly abandoned. The Portuguese soon made a settlement on the Malabar coast. Their commercial establishments, shipping by sea directly to Europe, quickly gathered up the Eastern trade. Lisbon, instead of Venice, became the great depot of Indian products.

GREAT VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY SINCE THE 15th C

Spain Portugal ☐

Markham 83°20'

Gr. Britain 

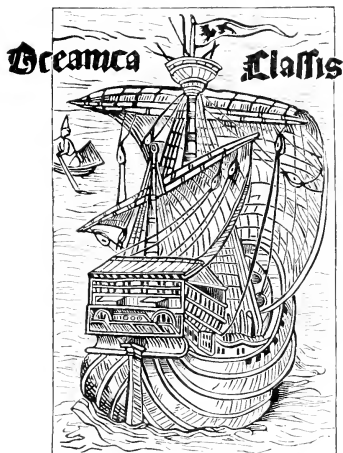
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Columbus, meanwhile, inspired by the same hope of finding a sea-route to India, and believing the earth to be round, sailed westward. He reached, not India, as he supposed, but a new world. On his third voyage, the very year that Da Gama sailed to Asia, Columbus first saw the coast of South America.

Adventurers of many nations now flocked eagerly through the door Columbus had opened. The names of Vespucci, Balboa, Cartier, Ponce de Leon, and De Soto are familiar to every student of American history. The Cabots, sailing under the English flag, explored the coast of the New World from Labrador to Chesapeake Bay. Cabral, a Portuguese navigator, in 1500, took possession of Brazil in the name of his king. Finally Magellan passed through the strait still known by his name, and crossed the Pacific to the Philippine Islands; there he was killed by the savage natives, but one of his ships, continuing the voyage, circumnavigated the globe (1521).

Mexico, when discovered by the Spaniards, had reached, under the Montezumas,—its Aztec rulers,—a considerable degree of civilization. Its laws were written in hieroglyphics; its judges were chosen for life; its army was furnished with music, hospitals, and surgeons; its calendar was more accurate than the Spanish; its people were skilled in agriculture and the arts; and its capital, Mexico, was supplied with aqueducts, and adorned with palaces and temples.



A SHIP OF THE 15TH CENTURY.
(From a Drawing attributed to Columbus.)

The Aztecs, however, were idolaters and cannibals; and their civilization was ignorant of horse, ox, plow, printing, and gunpowder.

Cortes, with a little army of 600 Spaniards, fearlessly invaded this powerful empire. His cannon and cavalry carried terror to the simple-minded natives. A war of three years, crowded with romance as with cruelty, completed the conquest. Mexico remained a province of Spain until 1821.

Peru, under the Incas, was perhaps richer and more powerful than Mexico. Two great military roads extended the entire length of the empire, and along them the public couriers carried the news 200 miles per day. A vast system of water-works, more extensive than that of Egypt, irrigated the rainless regions, and agriculture had attained a high degree of perfection. The government was paternal, the land being owned by the Inca, and a portion assigned to each person to cultivate. Royal officers directed the industry of this great family in tillage, weaving, etc., and, though no one could rise above his station, it was the boast of the country that every one had work, and enjoyed the comforts of life.

Pizarro, an unprincipled Spanish adventurer, overthrew this rich empire (1533), and imprisoned the Inca. The unfortunate captive offered, for his ransom, to fill his cell with gold vessels as high as he could reach; but, after he had collected over \$15,000,000 worth, he was strangled by his perfidious jailers.

The Spanish Colonies rarely prospered. In Mexico, *Cortes* sought to rule wisely. He sent home for priests and learned men; founded schools and colleges; and introduced European plants and animals. But, on his return to Spain, he became, like Columbus, a victim of ingratitude, though he had given to the emperor Charles V. "more states than Charles had inherited cities."

In general, the Spanish governors destroyed the native civilization,

without introducing the European. The thirst for gold was the principal motive that drew them to the New World. The natives were portioned among the conquerors, and doomed to work in the mines. It is said that four fifths of the Peruvians perished in this cruel bondage. The kind-hearted Las Casas, the apostle of the Indians, spent his life in vainly seeking to alleviate their miseries, convert them to Christianity, and obtain for them governmental protection. To supply the fearful waste of the population, negroes were brought from Africa, and so slavery and the slave-trade were established. The Spaniards turned to agriculture only when gold-hunting ceased to pay; and, not being a trading people, their colonial commerce fell chiefly into the hands of foreigners. For a time, however, the Spanish coffers were running over with American gold and silver.

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TOMB OF COLUMBUS AT HAVANA.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

I. THE FRENCH IN ITALY.

The Invasion of Italy (1494) by the French may be considered the opening event of modern history. The many leagues formed during the progress of this invasion, illustrate the growth of the new States-System.

Charles VIII. (1483-98), filled with dreams of rivaling Alexander and Charlemagne, resolved to assert the claim of his house to the kingdom of Naples.¹ Milan, Florence, and Rome opened their gates to his powerful army. He entered Naples amid the acclamations of the populace. This brilliant success turned the head of the weak king, and he gave himself up to feasts and tournaments. Meanwhile the first extended league in modern history was formed by Milan, Venice, the Pope, Maximilian of Germany, and Ferdinand of Spain, to expel the invader. Charles retreated as hastily as he had come, and by the victory of *Fornovo* secured his escape into France.

Louis XII. (1498-1515), inheriting the schemes of

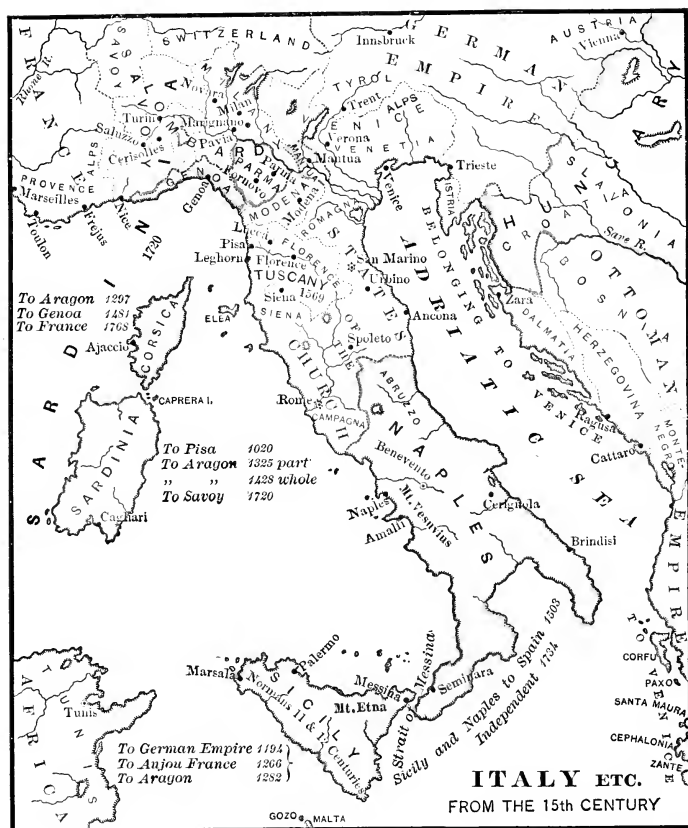
Geographical Questions.—Locate Naples; Milan; Fornovo; Venice; Pavia; Marignano; Genoa; Vienna; Wittenberg; Augsburg; Smalcald; Nuremberg; Innsbruck; Passau; Trent; Guinegate; Calais; Toul; Verdun; Rouen; Crespy; Passy; Ivry; Nantes; Antwerp; Leyden; Amsterdam; Haarlem; Ghent; Edinburgh; Flodden; Plymouth. Point out the seven provinces of Northern or United Netherlands; the limits of the Spanish Empire in the 16th century.

¹ The Dukes of Anjou, a branch of the House of France (p. 49), having been expelled from Italy, became established in the petty principality of Provence. After the death of René, who, according to Shakspeare, bore

“The style of king of Naples,
Of both the Sicilies and Jerusalem,
Yet not so wealthy as an English yeoman,”

the province and the claim of the house fell to Louis XI. (Brief Hist. France, p. 106).

Charles VIII. with a claim to Milan, led the second expedition over the Alps. Milan quickly fell into his hands. An arrangement was made with Ferdinand to divide Naples between them; but the conquerors quarreled over the spoil,



and the French army, in spite of the heroism of the Chevalier Bayard, was beaten back from Naples by the Spanish infantry under the "Great Captain" Gonsalvo.

Three Leagues.—Louis next joined the *League of Cambrai* (Ferdinand, Maximilian, and Pope Julius II.) against Venice. Just as the fall of that republic seemed at hand, jealousies arose among the confederates. Pope Julius suddenly turned the scale by forming the *Holy League* (Ferdinand, Maximilian, Venice, and the Swiss), which drove the French out of Italy. But Louis, now allied with Venice, again descended upon Milan. *The League of Malines* (Ferdinand, Maximilian, Henry VIII., and Leo X.) stayed his steps anew. Henry VIII. invaded France, and at *Guinegate* the French cavalry fled so fast before him that the victory is known as the *Battle of the Spurs*. Louis, beaten on all sides, was glad to make peace.

Francis I. (1515–47), also lured by the deceitful luster



FRANCIS I. (AFTER TITIAN).

of Italian conquest, began his reign by pouring his troops over the Alps, through paths known only to the chamois-hunter. The Swiss mercenaries guarding the passes were taken by surprise, and finally beaten in the bloody battle of *Marignano* (1515). The French were intoxicated with joy. Francis was dubbed a knight on the field by

the Chevalier Bayard. Milan fell without a blow. The Swiss made with France a treaty known as the *Perpetual Peace*, since it lasted as long as the old French monarchy.

II. THE AGE OF CHARLES V.

1 THE RIVALRY OF CHARLES AND FRANCIS.

Spain was now the leading power in Europe. Ferdinand ruled Spain, Sardinia, Sicily, Naples, and vast regions in the New World,—the gift of Columbus to the Castilian crown; while his daughter Joanna was married to Philip, son of Maximilian of Austria, and of Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold. When Charles, son of Philip, on the death of his grandfather Ferdinand, succeeded to the crown of Spain, he added the Low Countries to its possessions; and on the death of his other grandfather, Maximilian, he inherited the sovereignty of Austria, and was elected Emperor of Germany (1519). It was the grandest empire Europe had seen since the days of Augustus, uniting, as it did, under one scepter, the infantry of Spain, the looms of Flanders, and the gold of Peru.

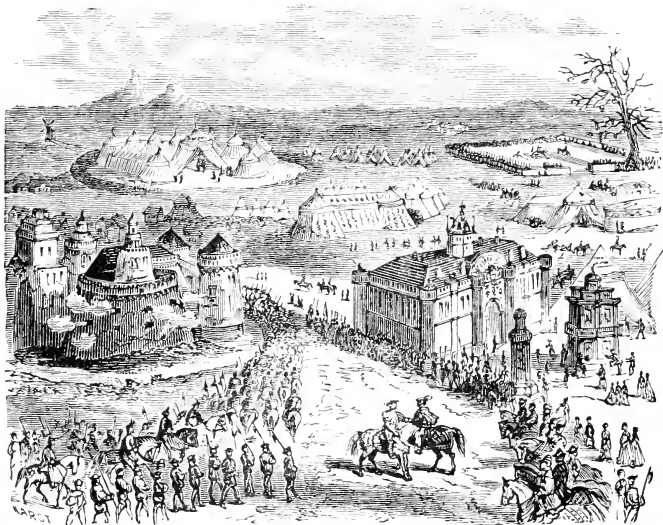
Charles's Rivalry with Francis.—Francis I. had been a candidate for the imperial crown, and his vanity was sorely hurt by Charles's success. Henceforth these two monarchs were bitter enemies. Their rivalry deluged Europe in blood.

Field of the Cloth of Gold (1520).—Before beginning hostilities, both kings sought to win the friendship of Henry VIII. Francis met Henry near Calais. The magnificence displayed gave to the field its name. The two kings feasted and played together like schoolboys.¹ Henry swore not to cut his beard until he should again visit his "good brother;" Francis made a like vow, and long beards became the latest French fashion.

But Charles negotiated more quietly, and, while he flattered the bluff and good-natured Henry, won his all-power-

¹ The three mightiest sovereigns of Europe in the first half of the 16th century—Henry VIII. of England, Charles V. of Spain, and Francis I. of France—were all crowned before reaching their majority.

ful minister, Cardinal Wolsey, by hopes of the papacy. A league was soon after formed of the Pope, the Emperor, and the King of England, against Francis.



FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD.

Battle of Pavia (1525).—Italy was again the principal battlefield. Francis, anxious to renew the glories of Marignano, led a magnificent army across the Alps, and besieged Pavia. There he was attacked by the imperialists under Bourbon.¹ At first the French artillery swept all before it.

¹ The Duke of Bourbon was Constable of France; but, having been neglected by the king and wronged by the queen-mother, he fled to the enemy for revenge, drove the French out of Italy, and invaded Provence. Francis forced the imperialists back, and followed them across the Alps, thus beginning the fatal campaign of Pavia. During the French retreat, Chevalier Bayard was struck by a ball (1524). Bourbon, coming up, offered him words of cheer. The dying hero replied, "Think rather of yourself in arms against your king, your country, and your oath!" The universal horror felt in France at Bourbon's treachery shows the increased sanctity of the royal authority over feudal times, and the influence of the recent revival of classic literature which taught treason to one's country to be a crime of the blackest dye. The nobles who joined in the "League of the Public Good" with Charles the Bold against Louis XI. were not considered traitors, yet that was little over half a century before (Brief Hist. France, p. 115).

Francis, thinking the enemy about to flee, charged with his knights; in so doing, he came in front of his guns, and thus checked their fire. Thereupon the imperialists rallied, and a terrible hand-to-hand conflict ensued. The flower of the French nobles was cut down. The Swiss, forgetting their ancient valor, fled. Francis himself, hemmed in on all sides, wounded, unhorsed, and covered with blood and dust, at last yielded his sword.

Treaty of Madrid.—The royal prisoner was carried to Madrid, and confined in the gloomy tower of the Alcazar. There, pining in captivity, he fell sick. The crafty emperor, fearing to lose the ransom, released him, on his agreeing to surrender Burgundy and his Italian claims, and give up his two sons as hostages. On the way home, Francis vaped much about Regulus, but quickly broke his promise,¹ and signed a treaty with the Pope, Henry, and the Venetians, to drive the imperialists out of Italy.

Sack of Rome.—Charles now sent Bourbon into Italy. His men being unpaid and eager for plunder, he led them to Rome as the richest prize. Bourbon was shot as he was placing a ladder, but the infuriated soldiery quickly scaled the walls. Never had the Eternal City suffered from Goth or Vandal as she now did from the subjects of a Christian emperor. The Pope himself, besieged in the Castle of St. Angelo, and forced to surrender, was put into close confinement till he should pay an enormous ransom.² The sack lasted for months, during which every kind of insult and

¹ He had already provided for this, for, a few hours before signing the treaty, he had called together some faithful friends and formally read to them a protest against the act he was about to perform, insisting that, as a forced measure, it should be considered null and void. Then, with the expressed expectation of breaking it, he signed the treaty, pledged to it the royal word, and confirmed that pledge with a solemn oath.

² When Charles learned that the Pope was a prisoner, he ordered his court into mourning, and, with strange hypocrisy, directed prayers to be said for the release which he could have effected by a word.

outrage was visited upon the unhappy Romans. Henry and Francis, who were preparing to invade the Low Countries, changed the scene of war upon hearing of the Pope's captivity, and the French troops, supported by English money, were sent under Lautrec to Rome. A fearful plague, which carried off conquerors as well as inhabitants, had preceded them, and when they arrived, of all Bourbon's host, scarcely 500 men survived to evacuate the city.

Ladies' Peace (1529).—Ere long, however, the French met with their usual defeat in Italy; Andrea Doria, the famous Genoese patriot, going over to Charles, became admiral of the Spanish fleet; and so Francis, anxious to recover his sons from the emperor, concluded a treaty. As it was negotiated by the king's mother and the emperor's aunt, it is known in history as the Ladies' Peace.

The Turks.—Meanwhile Charles had found a new foe, and Francis a singular ally. The Turks, under Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, using the cannon that breached the walls of Constantinople, had driven the Knights of St. John out of the Isle of Rhodes;¹ subdued Egypt; devastated Hungary;² and even appeared under the walls of Vienna (1529). Menaced thus, Charles, notwithstanding his Italian triumphs, was very willing to listen to the ladies, when, as we have seen, they talked of peace. Soon after, however, Soly-

¹ The knights made a gallant defense, a single man with his arquebus being said to have shot five hundred Turks. Thirty-two Turkish mines were destroyed, but finally one burst, throwing down a part of the city wall. The Grand Master, L'Isle Adam, rushed from the church where he was at prayer, only to find the Crescent already planted in the opening. He instantly dashed into the midst of the Turks, tore down the standard, and, with his brave knights, drove them back. For thirty-four nights he slept in the breach. At last, sorely against his will, the Hospitallers agreed to surrender their stronghold. L'Isle Adam sailed away with the survivors. Charles gave him the rocky island of Malta. There he established a well-nigh impregnable fortress for the benefit of distressed seamen of every nation.

² The Hungarian king having been slain in the battle of *Mohacs* (1526), the crown ultimately fell to his brother-in-law, Ferdinand of Austria, afterward emperor. It has ever since been held by the Archdukes of Austria (p. 79).

man, having made an alliance with Francis, who cared less for differences of faith than for revenge upon the emperor, raised a vast army, and, again wasting Hungary, threatened Vienna. The flower and strength of Germany rallied under Charles's banners, and forced the infidel to an inglorious retreat.

The emperor next sought to cripple the Turkish power by sea. Crossing the Mediterranean, he attacked Tunis, which Barbarossa, the Algerine pirate in command of Solyman's fleet, had seized. In the midst of the desperate struggle that ensued, ten thousand Christian slaves, confined in the castle, broke their fetters, and turned its guns upon their masters. The city was carried by assault. The prison doors were opened, and the released captives were sent home, to the joy of all Christendom.

The Pope finally mediated a truce between the rivals. Charles, while *en route* to Flanders, visited Paris. Francis, in an ecstacy of hospitality, exclaimed to his late enemy, "Here we are united, my brother and I. We must have the same foes and the same friends. We will equip a fleet against the Turks, and Andrea Doria shall be the commander." Brave words all, but soon forgotten.

The emperor, thinking to blunt the edge of the Turkish saber by a second expedition against the African pirates, sailed to Algiers; but his ships were destroyed by a storm, and his troops by a famine. Francis seized the opportunity, and raised five great armies to attack Charles's widespread empire. Solyman invaded Hungary, and Barbarossa ravaged the coasts of Spain and Italy. Europe was amazed to see the lilies of France and the crescent of Mohammed appear before Nice, and Christian captives sold by the corsairs in the market of Marseilles. It seemed as if the days of Martel had returned, and there was again peril of a Mohammedan

empire girding the Mediterranean; only the infidels were now brutal Turks instead of refined Saracens.

Treaty of Crespy (1544).—But this was not to be. Henry renewed his alliance with Charles, and they invaded France from opposite sides. Charles was beaten at *Cerissoles*, but Henry pushed to within two days' march of Paris. Already its citizens, panic-struck, had begun to move their valuables to Rouen, when Francis sued for peace. The Treaty of Crespy ended the wars of these monarchs, that for nearly twenty-five years had been so fruitful of wrong and misery.

2. AFFAIRS IN GERMANY.

Political Contentions.—Germany has been defined at this period as “one confused mass of electorates, duchies, earldoms, bishoprics, abbeys, imperial free cities and estates of the nobility, which, whether great or small, refused to yield to one another, and jealously asserted their independence.” The result was a constant struggle and contention. The emperor and the states were unceasingly at variance concerning the administration of the laws and matters of revenue; princes fought with one another over the extension of territorial dignities; knights warred against princes over their respective rights, and, forming themselves into bodies of freebooters, made every highway a scene of robbery and murder; while the cities, whose wealth and influence excited the hatred of both knights and princes, were internally convulsed with bloody quarrels between civic authorities and the various guilds. Last of all, the peasantry, always chafing under their numerous grievances, broke out into occasional insurrections, which were characterized by shocking barbarities and quelled by equally merciless proceedings.

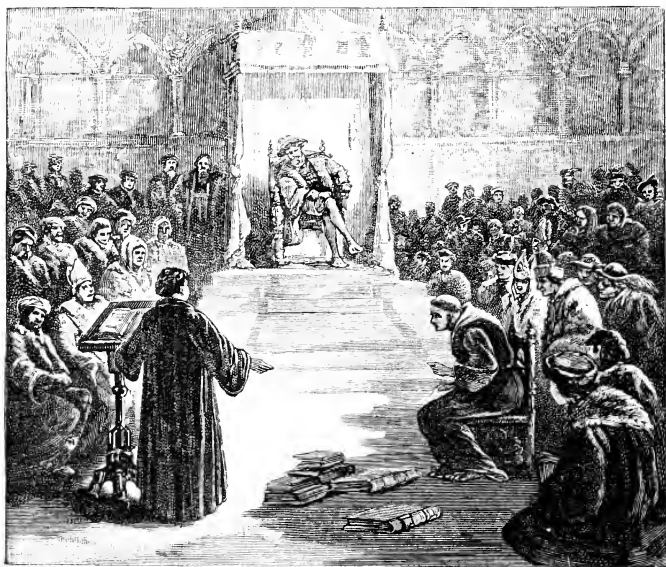
Religious Crisis.—Up to this period, although from time to time serious doctrinal disputes had arisen, each of which had left its bitter traces, the See of Rome had maintained its jurisdiction over all the nations in western Europe. During the reign of Maximilian,¹ however, a controversy was begun which was to lead to a division of Christendom into two conflicting and irreconcilable religious parties. This general movement is known as *The Reformation*.

Martin Luther's Theses.—There appeared one day on the cathedral door in Wittenberg a Latin document containing ninety-five theses, or propositions, in which Martin Luther,² an Augustinian monk, challenged all learned men to a public controversy upon certain tenets and practices of his time. Printed copies of this document quickly found their way into every part of Germany, and awakened intense excitement. Bitter controversies followed, and in the same year that Charles was elected emperor the ban of excommunication was pronounced against Luther unless he should retract his doctrines. Luther replied by publicly burning the papal bull. The schism had now become extreme.

¹ Maximilian was brave, handsome, learned, of powerful frame, and gentle temper. "In him," says Kohlrausch, "was personified for the last time chivalry in all its glory." His financial perplexities are prominent features in the history of his reign. As he was always in straits for money when a critical moment arrived, he has been given the title of "The Penniless." At this time most of the revenues formerly enjoyed by the Crown were claimed by the estates, and even so insignificant a levy for the imperial treasury as the penny-tax, viz., the payment by each subject of one penny for every thousand pence possessed, was stoutly contested. This chronic lack of funds seriously affected the success of Maximilian's many projects.

² Martin Luther was born 1483; died, 1546. His father was a poor wood-cutter, and at fifteen Martin became a "wandering scholar" (see p. 170) in Eisenach, earning his bread, after the custom of the day, by singing in the streets. His diligence, studiousness, and sweet voice won the boy many friends, and finally, his father becoming able to aid him, he finished his education at the University of Erfurt. The reading of a Bible, then a rare book, and hence chained to a desk in the library, awakened his thought, and, against his father's wish, he entered an Augustine monastery. In 1508 he was appointed professor in the University of Wittenberg, just founded by the Elector Frederick of Saxony.

The Diet of Worms (1521).—The emperor Charles held his first diet at Worms. Thither Luther was summoned to answer for his heresy. All attempts to induce



THE DIET OF WORMS.

him to recant were fruitless. He was therefore denounced as a heretic, and he and his supporters were put under the ban of the empire.¹

¹ Charles had publicly declared during the diet that he was "determined to employ all his kingdom, friends, body, blood, and even life, to prevent this godless undertaking from spreading." But he had already promised Luther a safe-conduct, and when he was urged to break his word, and not allow Luther to leave the city, he nobly replied, "No! I do not mean to blush like Sigismund" (p. 80). Luther's friends, however, feared for his safety, and by order of one of his staunchest supporters, the Elector Frederick, he was secretly conveyed to the lonely castle of the Wartburg, where he staid nearly a year. Here he began the translation of the Bible into German,—a work which, aided by Melancthon and other scholars, occupied him for several years. Up to this time there was no language accepted throughout the empire. The learned wrote in Latin; the minnesingers, in Swabian; and many used the dialects,—Saxon, Franconian, etc. Luther, passing by the diction of the theologi-

After the diet, Charles left Germany, and, absorbed in his great struggle with Francis, did not return for nine years.

Meanwhile the new doctrines rapidly spread¹ into northern Germany, France, Switzerland,² England, Scotland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The Teutonic nations, with a few exceptions, finally adopted them in some form, while the Latin nations remained faithful to the Church of Rome.

Lutherans called Protestants (1529).—Archduke Ferdinand, alarmed by the progress of the reformers under Luther and of the Turks under Solyman, called a diet at Spires. The Catholics, being in the majority, passed a decree forbidding any further change in religion. The Lutheran princes and cities formally *protested* against this action,—whence they were called Protestants.

The Ladies' Peace now giving Charles leisure, he revisited Germany, and held a diet at Augsburg.³ A statement of the

cal schools and the courts, sought the expressive idioms employed by the people. For this purpose he visited the market place and social gatherings, often spending days over a single phrase. No sentence was admitted into the translation until it had crystallized into pure, idiomatic German. The Bible soon became the model of style; and its High-German, the standard of cultivated conversation and polite literature.

¹ Princes and cities, vexed at the money drained from their people by the Roman pontiff, and quite willing to secure the vast possessions of the Church, saw their interests lying along the line of the new faith. So "policy was more Lutheran than religious reform," and they eagerly seized upon this opportunity to emancipate themselves at once from emperor and Pope. Thus the Reformation gradually became a struggle for political power quite as much as for religious freedom.

² **Switzerland** had its own reformation. Zwingle, the leader, was more radical than Luther. He wished to purify State as well as Church. After his death in battle the people of Geneva invited thither the great French reformer, Calvin. Ecclesiastical courts were established, and a rigid discipline was enforced that reached to the minutest detail of life. Under this despotic rule, Geneva became the most moral city in Europe, and the home of letters and orthodoxy. Calvin's doctrines, more than those of any other reformer, molded men's minds. The Huguenots, the Dutch Walloons, the Scotch Presbyterians, and the New England Puritans, all were stamped with his type of thought.

³ Charles was entertained at the splendid mansion of Anthony Fugger, a famous merchant-prince of Augsburg. At the close of the visit, the host invited the emperor into his study, and there threw upon a fire of cinnamon—then a very costly spice—the bonds which Charles had given him for loans to carry on his wars with Francis.

Protestant doctrine was here read which afterward became famous as the *Augsburg Confession*,—the creed of the German reformers. Instead of with one monk, as at Worms, Charles had now to deal with half of Germany. But he again denounced the heresy, and put all who held it under the ban of the empire.

Smalcaldic League (1531).—The Protestant princes organized at Smalcald for mutual protection. But Solyman having once more marched upon Vienna, Charles, in the face of this peril, granted the reformers liberty of conscience. Forthwith the Protestants and Catholics gathered under the imperial banner, and the Turks hastily retreated. Charles now left Germany for another nine-years' absence.

Smalcaldic War (1546–47).—The Treaty of Crespy freeing Charles from further fear of Francis, he determined to crush the Reformation. The Council of Trent (1545–63) was called; but the Protestants, taking no part in the deliberations, rejected its decrees. Meanwhile civil war broke out. The Protestant leaders were irresolute. Prince Maurice of Saxony, deserting his fellow-reformers, joined Charles, and overran the territory of his cousin the Elector Frederick. The league fell to pieces. Only Frederick and Philip, the landgrave of Hesse, remained in the field. Charles, bold and wary as ever, defeated and captured the former, while Maurice persuaded the latter, his father-in-law, to surrender.

Charles's Triumph now seemed complete. The boldest Protestant leaders were in prison. The sword of Francis and the pen of Luther were both relics of the past. Germany was at last prostrate before her Spanish lord. A proud and haughty conqueror,¹ he brought Spanish infantry

¹ History, however, records some noble traits in Charles's character. Visiting Luther's grave, one of his attendants urged that the body of the reformer should be dug up and burned. The chivalrous emperor replied, "No! I make war on the living, not on the dead."

to overawe the disaffected ; forced upon the unwilling people the *Interim*,—a compromise between the two religions, which was hateful to both Catholics and Protestants ; and sought to have the succession taken from his brother Ferdinand, and given to his son,—the cold and gloomy Philip.

Maurice revolts.—At this juncture the man who won Charles the victory undid his work. Maurice, impatient of the name “traitor,” and indignant at the continued imprisonment of his father-in-law, organized a revolt, and made an alliance with Henry II. of France.

Treaty of Passau.—Suddenly the confederates took the field. Henry seized Toul, Verdun, and the strong fortress of Metz, without striking a blow. To escape from Maurice, the emperor at Innsbruck fled through the stormy night along the mountain-paths of the Tyrol.¹ The Council of Trent broke up in dread. Charles was forced to bend, and, by the *Treaty of Passau* (1552), the captive princes were released and religious toleration was partially secured.

Charles's Abdication (1556).—Imperial disasters now followed fast. Charles tried to recover Metz, but was defeated by the Duke of Guise,—a French leader then new to fame. The Turkish fleet ravaged the coast of Italy. The Pope, offended by the toleration granted the Protestants, made an alliance with Henry of France. Charles, sad, disappointed, and baffled, laid down the crown.² His son

¹ Maurice, if he had deemed it politic, could have prevented the escape, but, as the emperor himself once said, “Some birds are too big for any cage,”—a truth that Charles well learned after the battle of Pavia.

² He thus followed the example of Diocletian (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 263). After his retirement Charles went to the monastery of St. Just in Spain. Though only fifty-six, having been born in the same year with his century, he was prematurely old,—the victim of gluttony. Now, shut in by groves of oak and chestnut, and under the shadow of the lofty mountains, the late emperor joined the monks in their religious exercises, or amused himself by various mechanical contrivances,—the making of watches and curious little puppets. Unable, however, to absorb himself in his new life, he eagerly watched the tidings of the busy world he had left behind. One day the morbid fancy

Philip II., husband of Mary, Queen of England, received Spain, the Netherlands, and the Two Sicilies; while Ferdinand of Austria was chosen emperor.

End of the War.—Philip for a time continued the struggle with France, and won the battle of *St. Quentin* (1557);¹ but Guise's capture of Calais from the English, who had held it over two centuries, consoled the French. The *Treaty of Câteau-Cambresis* (1559) closed the long contest, and emphasized the division of Europe into Catholic and Protestant nations.

The Condition of Germany during the remainder of the 16th century was that of mutual fear and suspicion. The Calvinists were excluded from the Treaty of Passau, and the feeling between them and the Lutherans was as bitter as between both and the Catholics. The different parties watched one another with growing dislike and doubt, every rustling leaf awakening fresh suspicion. Minor divisions arose among the Protestants. Each petty court had its own school of theologians, and the inspiration of the early reformers degenerated into wrangles about petty doctrines and dogmas. No true national life could exist in such an atmosphere. *Ferdinand I.* and his successor, *Maximilian II.*, managed to hold the unsteady balance between the conflicting parties; but under *Rudolph II.*, Catholic and Protestant leagues were formed. *Matthias* got his cousin Ferdinand chosen king of Hungary and Bohemia; on the death of Matthias, *Ferdinand II.* was elected emperor (1619). He was a bitter foe of the Reformation, and the closing of two Protestant churches (1618) in his territory proved the signal for the Thirty-Years' War (p. 174).

seized him to have his funeral services performed. He took part in the solemn pageant, standing by the side of his empty coffin, holding a torch, and chanting a dirge. The real death and funeral followed within three weeks (1558).

¹ When Charles, in his retirement, heard of this victory, he exclaimed, "Is not my son now in Paris?" Philip, however, derived no advantage from it, except the glory of the day and the plan of the huge palace of the Escorial, which is built in parallel rows like the bars of a gridiron, in memory of St. Lawrence, on whose day the battle was fought, and whose martyrdom consisted in being broiled over a slow fire.

III. RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

The Netherlands, now Holland and Belgium, by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy to Maximilian, fell to the House of Hapsburg. When her grandson resigned these provinces to Philip, they formed the richest possession of the Spanish Crown. The looms of Flanders were world-renowned. The manufactories of Ghent had one hundred thousand artisans. In the Scheldt at Antwerp twenty-five hundred ships were often to be seen waiting their turn to come to the wharfs, while five thousand merchants daily thronged the city exchange.



DESECRATING A CATHEDRAL.

Protestantism had made great progress among the Netherlands. Philip, who declared that he would rather be no king than to reign over heretics, sought to crush the

new doctrines by the terrors of the Inquisition.¹ The people resisted. Tumults arose, and many beautiful cathedrals were sacked by the mob.²

The Duke of Alva was now sent thither with an army of Spanish veterans (1567). Within six years Alva and his dreaded Council of Blood put to death eighteen thousand persons, and passed sentence of death upon the entire population. Thousands of workmen, fleeing in terror, carried to England the manufacturing skill of Bruges and Ghent.

Meanwhile, William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, known in history as The Silent, took the field in defense of his persecuted countrymen. Then began their

Forty-Years' War (1568-1609) for freedom. This long struggle is memorable in history on account of the heroic defense the cities made against the Spanish armies.³ The

¹ A deputation of nobles to protest against this measure was styled by a scornful courtier a "Pack of Beggars." This being reported to the nobles at a banquet, one of them hung about his neck a beggar's wallet, and all drank to the toast, "Long live the beggars!" The name became thenceforth their accepted title.

² The Netherlands possessed an extraordinary number of magnificent cathedrals, adorned with valuable paintings, statues, and the costly gifts of many worshiping generations. In the short space of a week nearly every one of these temples had been invaded and the priceless treasures destroyed.

³ Haarlem was besieged by Don Frederick, Alva's son, in 1572. Having breached the defenses, he ordered an assault. Forthwith the church bells rang the alarm. Men and women flocked to the walls. Thence they showered upon the besiegers stones and boiling oil, and dexterously threw down over their necks hoops dripping with burning pitch. Spanish courage and ferocity shrunk back appalled at such a determined resistance by an entire population. Don Frederick then took to mining; the citizens countermined. Spaniard and Netherlander met in deadly conflict within passages dimly lighted by lanterns, and so narrow that the dagger only could be used. At times, showers of mingled stones, earth, and human bodies, shot high into the air, as if from some concealed volcano. The Prince made several futile attempts to relieve the city. In one of these, John Haring sprung upon a narrow dike, and alone held in check one thousand of the enemy until his friends made good their escape, when, Horatius-like, he leaped into the sea, and swam off unharmed. Hope of rescue finally failed the besieged, and then famine added to their horrors. Dogs, cats, and mice were devoured; shoe-leather was soaked and eaten; while gaunt specters wandered to and fro, eagerly seizing the scattered spires of grass and weeds, to allay the torment of hunger. In the last extremity, the soldiers proposed to form a hollow square, put the women and children in the center, fire the city, and then cut their way out. The seven-months' siege had taught the Spaniards the issue of such a struggle of despair, and they offered terms of surrender. But when Alva's legions were inside the walls, he forgot all save revenge, butchered garrison and citi-

MAP TO ILLUSTRATE
WARS IN FRANCE
THE NETHERLANDS
 OR LOW COUNTRIES
 AND THE
CIVIL WARS IN ENGLAND



Silent One, with his devotion to duty, constancy in adversity, and marvelous statesmanship, is the central figure of the contest. In 1576 (two centuries before our '76) he united the provinces in a league called the *Pacification of Ghent*. But the northern and the southern provinces were unlike in race and religion. The former were Teutonic, and mostly Protestant; the latter, Celtic, and largely Catholic. Jealousies arose. The league fell in pieces. William then formed the seven northern provinces into the *Union of Utrecht*,—the foundation of the Dutch Republic. The Prince was chosen first stadtholder.

Philip, the gloomy tyrant of the Escorial, having set a price upon William's head, this patriot leader was assassinated (1584). When the sad news flew through Holland, even the little children wept in the streets.

Maurice of Nassau, the Prince's second son, was chosen in his father's place. Though only in his seventeenth year, he proved to be a rare general; while at his side stood the

zens alike, and, when the executioners were weary, tied three hundred wretches together, two by two, back to back, and hurled them into the lake.

Leiden was besieged by Valdez in 1574. A chain of sixty-two forts cut off all communication, except by means of carrier pigeons, which, flying high in air, bore tidings between the Prince and the city. (The stuffed skins of these faithful messengers are still preserved in the town hall.) Soon famine came, more bitter even, if possible, than that at Haarlem. The starving crowd was at last driven to the burgomaster, demanding food or a surrender. "I have sworn not to yield," was the heroic reply; "but take my sword, plunge it into my breast, and divide my flesh among you." These words raised their courage anew, and, clambering upon the walls, they took their places again, calling out to the enemy in defiance, "Before we give up, we will eat our left arms to give strength to our right." The Prince had no army to send to their relief; but the Sea Beggars were outside pacing the decks of their ships, and chafing at the delay. For though the patriots, crying out that "a drowned land is better than a lost land," had cut the dikes to let in the ocean upon their fertile fields, the water was too shallow to float the fleet. One night the tempest came. The waters of the North Sea were piled high on the Holland coast. The waves, driven by a west wind, swept irresistibly over the land. The ships, loaded with food, were borne to the very walls of the city. The Spaniards, dismayed by the incoming ocean, fled in terror. The happy people flocked with their deliverers to the cathedral, to pour out their thanksgiving to God. Prayer was offered, and then a hymn begun; but the tide of emotion rose too high, and, checking the song, the vast audience wept together tears of joy and gratitude. Read Motley's account in the *Rise of the Dutch Republic*.

skillful diplomat and devoted patriot, John of Barneveld. In time both France and England became allies of the states, and took part in the struggle (pp. 147, 158).

The Dutch Sailors early won great renown. Their light, active ships beat the clumsy Spanish galleons, alike in trade and war. A Dutch Indiaman would sail to the Antipodes and back while a Portuguese or a Spaniard was making the outward voyage. The East India Company, founded in 1602, conquered islands and kingdoms in Asia, and carried on a lucrative trade with China and Japan. Spain and Portugal, pioneers in the East, now bought spices, silks, and gems of Holland merchants.

Result of the War.—The King of Spain, then Philip III., was finally forced to grant a truce, in which he treated with the seven United Provinces as if free; though he refused formally to acknowledge their independence until the Treaty of Westphalia (p. 179). The southern or Belgian provinces remained in the possession of Spain.

Free Holland now took her place among the nations. Her fields bloomed like a garden; her shops rang with the notes of industry; and her harbors bristled with masts. In the 17th century she was a power in the European States-System, and her alliance was eagerly courted; while Spain fell so rapidly that foreign princes arranged for a division of her territory without consulting her sovereign.¹

¹ By the expulsion of the remaining Moors, Philip III. drove out of Spain six hundred thousand of her most industrious and thrifty citizens, transferred to other countries five sixths of her commerce and manufactures, and reduced the revenue over one half. The nation never recovered from this impolitic and unjust act. It should be remembered, however, that persecution was the spirit of the age. Even the mild Isabella consented to expel the Jews, to the number of one hundred and sixty thousand; and though this edict caused untold misery, yet at the time it was lauded as a signal instance of piety. Toleration was not understood, even by the reformers of Germany or England, and all parties believed that it was right to punish, or, if necessary, to burn a man's body, in order to save his soul.

IV. CIVIL-RELIGIOUS WARS OF FRANCE.

Protestantism took deep root in France, especially among the nobility. Though Francis I. and Henry II. aided the German reformers in order to weaken Charles V., to schism at home they showed no mercy. By the treaties of Crespy and Câteau-Cambresis they were pledged to stamp out the new religion. Francis relentlessly persecuted the



CATHARINE DE' MEDICI.

Vandois, a simple mountain folk of the Piedmont; Henry celebrated the coronation of his wife, Catharine de' Medici, with a bonfire of heretics, and sought to establish the Inquisition in France, as had been done in the Netherlands. In spite of persecution, however, Calvinist prayers and hymns were heard even in the royal palace. The

Huguenots—as the Protestants were called—began to claim the same rights that their German brethren had secured at Passau. Denied these, they organized a revolt. During the reigns of Henry II.'s three sons, Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III., who successively came to the throne, France was convulsed by the horrors of civil war.

The Leaders.—The Catholic leaders were the Constable Montmorenci, and the two Guises,—Francis the Duke, and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine. They were supported by the Church and Spain.

At the head of the Huguenots stood the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé,—both Bourbons claiming descent from St. Louis,—and Admiral Coligny, nephew of Montmorenci. They were befriended by the reformers of Germany, England, and the Netherlands.



ADMIRAL COLIGNY.

The Situation.—The remaining kings of the Valois line were young, weak, and unfit to contend with the profound questions and violent men of the time. The Bourbons hated the Guises, and each plotted the other's ruin. Catharine, a wily, heartless Italian, moving between the factions like a spirit of evil, schemed for power. Her maxim was, "Divide and govern." She cared little for religion, but opposed the Huguenots because their aristocratic leaders sought to strengthen the nobles at the expense of the king. Thus political mingled with religious motives, and the struggle was quite as much for the triumph of rival chiefs as for that of any form of faith.

Francis II. (1559–60), a sickly boy of sixteen, fascinated by the charms of his girl-wife, the beautiful Mary Queen of Scots, was ruled, through her, by her uncles, the Guises. The Bourbons planned to remove the king from their influence. The Guises detected the plot, and took a ferocious revenge. Condé himself escaped only by the king's sudden death. Mary returned to Scotland to work out her sad destiny (p. 157).

Charles IX. (1560–74), a child-king of ten, was now pushed to the front. Catharine, as regent,¹ tried to hold the balance between the two parties. But the Catholics, becoming exasperated, resented every concession to the Huguenots; while the Huguenots, growing exultant, often interrupted the worship and broke the images in the Catholic



HENRY, DUKE OF GUISE.

churches. One Sunday (1562) the Duke of Guise was riding through *Vassy* as a Huguenot congregation were gathering for worship. His attendants, sword in hand, fell upon the Protestants. This massacre was the opening scene in

A Series of Eight Civil Wars, which, interrupted by seven short and unsteady treaties of peace, lasted, in all, over thirty years. Plots, murders,

treacheries, thickened fast. Guise was assassinated; Condé was shot in cold blood. Navarre and Montmorenci, more fortunate, fell in battle. Guise was succeeded by his brother Henry, while Navarre's place was taken by his gallant son, afterward Henry IV.

The Treaty of St. Germain, the third lull of hostilities in this bloody series, gave promise of permanence. Charles

¹ It is noticeable that about this time a large part of Europe was governed by women,—England, by Elizabeth; Spain, by Juana, princess regent; the Netherlands, by Margaret of Parma, acting as regent for Philip; Navarre, by Queen Jane; Scotland, by Mary; and Portugal, by the regent-mother, Catharine of Austria, sister of Charles V.

offered his sister Margaret in marriage to Henry of Navarre. The principal Huguenots flocked to Paris to witness the wedding festivities. Coligny won the confidence of the king, and an army was sent to aid the reformers in the Netherlands. Catharine, seeing her power waning, resolved to assassinate Coligny. The attempt failed; the Huguenots swore revenge. In alarm, Catharine with her friends decided to crush the Huguenot party at one horrible blow. With difficulty, Charles was persuaded to consent to

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew (August 24, 1572). Before daybreak the impatient Catharine gave the signal. Instantly lights gleamed from the windows. Bands of murderers thronged the streets. Guise himself hurried to Coligny's house; his attendants rushed in, found the old man at prayer, stabbed him to death, and threw his body from the window, that Guise might feast his eyes upon his fallen enemy. Everywhere echoed the cry, "Kill! kill!" The slaughter went on for days. In Paris alone hundreds of persons perished; while in the provinces each city had its own St. Bartholomew.

Result.—The Huguenots, dazed for a moment, flew to arms with the desperation of despair. Many moderate Catholics joined them. Charles, unable to banish from his eyes the horrible scenes of that fatal night, died at last a victim of remorse.

Henry III. (1574–89) next ascended the throne. Frivolous and vicious, he met with contempt on every side. The violent Catholics formed a "League to extirpate Heresy." Its leader was the Duke of Guise, who now threatened to become another Pepin to a second Childeric. The king had this dangerous rival assassinated in the royal cabinet. Paris rose in a frenzy at the death of its idol. Henry fled for protection to the Huguenot camp. A fanatic, instigated by

Guise's sister, entered his tent and stabbed the monarch to the heart. Thus ended the Valois line.¹

Henry of Navarre (1589–1610) now became king as Henry IV., the first of the Bourbon House (p. 49). To crush the League, however, took five years more of war. The crisis came at *Ivry*, where the Huguenots followed Henry's white plume to a signal victory. Finally, in order to end the struggle, he abjured the Protestant religion. The next year he was crowned at Paris (1594).

Henry's Administration brought to France a sweet calm after the turmoil of war. By the *Edict of Nantes* (1598),



SULLY.

he granted toleration to the Huguenots. With his famous minister, Sully, he restored the finances, erected public edifices, built ships, encouraged silk manufacture, and endowed schools and libraries. The common people found in him a friend, and he often declared that he should not be content until "the poorest peasant in his realm had a fowl for his pot every Sunday." This

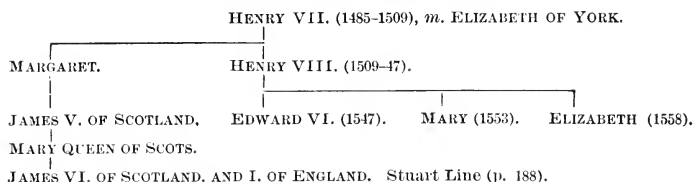
prosperous reign was cut short by the dagger of the assassin Ravallac (1610).

¹ It is a house distinguished for misfortunes. Every monarch save one (Charles V.) left a record of loss or shame. Philip VI. was defeated at Shys and Crécy, and lost Calais. John, beaten at Poitiers, died a prisoner in England. Charles VI., conquered at Agincourt, was forced to acknowledge the English monarch heir of his kingdom. Charles VII. owed his crown to a peasant girl, and finally starved himself for fear of poisoning by his son. Louis XI., taken prisoner by Burgundy, was for days in danger of execution; he died hated by all. Charles VIII. and Louis XII. met reverses in Italy. Francis I. was taken prisoner at Pavia. Henry II. suffered the sting of the defeat at St. Quentin, and was slain in a tilting match. Francis II. fortunately died young. Charles IX. perished with the memory of St. Bartholomew resting upon him; and Henry III. was murdered.

V. ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS (1485-1603).

The Tudor Rule covered, in general, the sixteenth century. Then began the era of absolutism, such as Louis XI. had introduced into France, but which was curbed in England by the Charter, Parliament, and the free spirit of the people. The characteristic features of the period were the rise of Protestantism, the growth of commerce, and the development of learning and literature.

TABLE OF THE TUDOR LINE.



1. **Henry VII.** (1485-1509), hailed king on the field of Bosworth, by his marriage with Elizabeth of York blended the roses (p. 40). The ground-swell of the civil war, however, still agitated the country. Two impostors claimed the throne. Both were put down after much bloodshed. Henry's ruling trait was avarice. Promising to invade France, he secured supplies from Parliament, extorted from wealthy persons gifts,—curiously termed “benevolences,”¹—crossed the Channel, made peace (secretly negotiated from the first) with Charles VIII. for £149,000, and returned home enriched at the expense of friend and foe. He punished the nobles with fines on every pretext, and his lawyers revived musty edicts and forgotten tenures in order to fill the royal coffers under the guise of law.

¹ His favorite minister, Morton, devised a dilemma known as “Morton's fork,” since a rich man was sure to be caught on one tine or the other. A frugal person was asked for money because he must have saved much, and an extravagant one because he had much to spend.

Henry's tyranny, however, reached only the great. He gave rest to the people. He favored the middle classes, and, by permitting the poorer nobles to sell their lands regardless of the "entail," enabled prosperous merchants to buy estates. He also encouraged commerce, and under his patronage the Cabots explored the coast of America.

In 1502 Henry's daughter Margaret was married to James IV. of Scotland. This wedding of the rose and the thistle paved the way to the union of the two kingdoms under the Stuarts, a century later.

2. **Henry VIII.** (1509-47) at eighteen succeeded to the throne and his father's wealth. For the first time since Richard II., the king had a clear title to the crown. Young, handsome, witty, fond of sport, and skillful in arms, Bluff King Hal, as he was called, was, in the first years of his reign, the most popular king in English history.

Foreign Relations.—While Henry was winning the battle of the Spurs (p. 126), Scotland as usual sided with France. James IV., though Henry's brother-in-law, invaded England. But on *Flodden Field* (1513) he was slain with the flower of the Scots. Soon England came, as we have seen, to hold the balance of power between Charles V. and Francis I. Lest either should grow too strong, Henry always took the part of the one who happened at the time to be the weaker. Such wars brought no good to any one.

Thomas Wolsey, the son of a butcher, who rose from a priest to be Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor of England, Cardinal, and Papal Legate, was Henry's minister. He lived with almost royal splendor. His household comprised 500 nobles, and he was attended everywhere by a train of the first barons of the land. The direction of foreign and domestic affairs rested with him. As chancellor, he administered justice; as legate, he controlled the Church.

Catharine's Divorce.—For nearly twenty years Henry lived happily with his wife, Catharine of Aragon, widow of his elder brother, and aunt of Charles V. But of their children, Mary, a sickly girl, alone survived. Should Henry leave no son, the royal succession would be imperiled, as no woman had as yet occupied the throne. The recent civil war emphasized this dread. Henry professed to fear that the death of his children was a judgment upon him for having married his brother's widow. His scruples were quickened, perhaps even suggested, by the



PORTRAITS OF HENRY VIII. AND CARDINAL WOLSEY.

charms of Anne Boleyn, a beautiful maid of honor. Henry accordingly applied to Pope Clement VII. for a divorce, alleging the stings of his conscience as a reason therefor. The Pope hesitated, and the affair dragged on for years. The universities and learned men at home and abroad were consulted. At last Henry privately married Anne. Thomas Cranmer,¹ who had been appointed Archbishop of

¹ It is curious that the four most remarkable men of Henry's administration—Wolsey, Cranmer, Cromwell, and More—all had the same given name, Thomas, and all were executed except Wolsey, who escaped the scaffold only by death.

Canterbury on account of his zeal in the king's cause, then pronounced Catharine's marriage illegal (1533). The forsaken wife died three years later. But more than the fate of queen or maid of honor was concerned in this royal whim.

Wolsey's Fall (1530).—Wolsey, as legate, had hesitated to declare a divorce without the papal sanction. Henry, brooking no opposition, determined on his minister's disgrace. Stripped of place and power, the old man was banished from the court. Soon after, he was arrested for treason; while on his way to prison he died, broken-hearted at his fall.¹

Breach with Rome.—Henry had no sympathy with the Reformation. Indeed, he had written a book against Luther's doctrines, for which he had received, as a reward from the Pope, the title of the Defender of the Faith. But Cromwell, who after Wolsey's fall became Henry's chief minister, advised the king not to trouble himself about the papal decision, but to deny the Pope's supremacy. Link by link the chain that had so long bound England to Rome was broken. Parliament declared Anne's marriage legal, forbade appeals or payments to the Pope, and acknowledged the king as supreme head of the English Church.² All who refused to take the Oath of Supremacy were proclaimed guilty of high treason.³ The monasteries were suppressed,

¹ His last words, as given almost literally by Shakspeare, have become famous:

"O Cromwell, Cromwell,
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in my age
Have left me naked to mine enemies."—HENRY VIII., *Act III., Scene 2.*

² This position gave Henry an almost sacred character. Parliament directed that, within certain limits, his proclamations should have the force of law; and, at the simple mention of his name, that body rose and bowed to his vacant throne.

³ The heads of the noblest in England now rolled upon the scaffold. Among those who suffered death were John Fisher, the venerable Bishop of Rochester, believed by many to have been the real author of Henry's book; and Sir Thomas More, a man of great wit and brilliant intellect, who was lord chancellor for a time after Wolsey's fall. Both these men agreed to support the succession, but would not deny the validity of Catharine's marriage or the supremacy of the Pope.

and their vast estates confiscated. A part of their revenues was spent in founding schools, but the larger share was lavished upon the king's favorites.



THE CHAINED BIBLE.

(Scene in a Church Porch, 16th Century.)

The Six Articles.—A copy of the Bible, translated by Tyndale and revised by Coverdale, was ordered to be chained to a pillar or desk in every church. Crowds of the common people flocked around to hear its truths read to them in their mother-tongue. Henry drew up the famous Six Articles of Religion for the Church of England.¹ But, with his usual fickleness, he afterward published in succession two books, each giving to the nation a different creed, and

¹ Fox wittily termed this statute "The whip with six strings."

finally restricted to merchants and gentlemen the royal permission to read the Bible. Both Protestants and Catholics were persecuted with great impartiality; the former for rejecting Henry's doctrines, and the latter for denying his supremacy.

Henry's Six Wives.—*Anne Boleyn* wore her coveted crown only three years. A charge of unfaithfulness brought her to the scaffold within less than five months from the death of the discarded *Catharine* (1536). The very day after Anne's execution, Henry married *Jane Seymour*, a maid of honor whose pretty face had caught his changeful fancy; she died the following year. His fourth wife was *Anne of Cleves*, a Protestant princess. Her plain looks disappointed the king, who had married her by proxy, and he soon obtained a divorce by act of Parliament. Cromwell had arranged this match, and the result cost him his head. Henry next married *Catharine Howard*, but her bad conduct was punished by death. The last of the series was *Catharine Parr*, a widow, who, to the surprise of all, managed to keep her head upon her shoulders until the king died in 1547.

3. **Edward VI.** (1547–53), son of Jane Seymour, ascended the throne in his tenth year. The Duke of Somerset became regent.

The Ecclesiastical Changes which had begun by the severance from Rome were continued. Archbishop Cramer, seconded by Bishops Ridley and Latimer, was foremost in shaping the changes in ceremony and doctrine that gave to the English Church a Protestant form. The Latin mass was abolished. The pictures and statues in the churches were destroyed. The Book of Common Prayer was compiled, and the faith of the Anglican Church summed up in the Forty-two (now Thirty-nine) Articles of Religion.

The Duke of Northumberland, having brought Somerset to the scaffold, for a time ruled England. He persuaded Edward to set aside his half-sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were next in the succession according to the will of Henry VIII., and to leave the crown to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, the young wife of Lord Dudley,—Northumberland's son. Soon after, the gentle and studious Edward died.

4. **Mary** (1553–58), however, was the people's choice, and she became the first queen-regnant of England. Lady Jane, a charming girl of sixteen, who found her greatest delight in reading Plato in the window-corner of a library, though proclaimed by Northumberland against her wish, was sent to the Tower; a year afterward, on the rising of her friends, she and her husband were beheaded. As an ardent Catholic, Mary sought to reconcile England to the Pope. The laws favoring the Protestants were repealed, and a number of persons were burned as heretics. Among these were Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley. The queen was married to her cousin, afterward Philip II. of Spain. The Spanish alliance was hateful to the English; while Philip soon tired of his haggard, sickly wife, whom he had chosen merely to gratify his father. She, however, idolized her husband, and, to please him, joined in the war against France. As the result she lost Calais, which had been for more than two hundred years an English possession. The humbled queen died soon after, declaring that the name of this stronghold would be found written on her heart.

5. **Elizabeth** (1558–1603), the last of the Tudor sovereigns, was the daughter of Anne Boleyn. Self-poised, courageous, and determined, like all the Tudors, she thoroughly understood the temper of the nation; knew when to command and when to yield; and was more than a match



PORTRAITS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH AND MARY QUEEN
OF SCOTS.

for any politician at home or abroad. She brought about her wise statesmen like William Cecil (Lord Burleigh) and Francis Walsingham. She restored the Protestant religion, and gave the Church of England its present form. She declined marriage to Philip II., saying that she was wedded to her realm, and would never bring in a foreign master.

Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity were passed by her first Parliament. The former act compelled every clergyman and office-holder to take an oath acknowledging Elizabeth as head of the Church of England, and to abjure every foreign prince and prelate; the latter forbade attendance upon the ministry of any clergyman except of the established religion, and inflicted a fine on all who did not go to service. Both the Catholics and the Puritans¹ opposed these measures, but for some years met with the Church of England for worship.

¹ These Protestants desired what they called a *purser* form of worship than the one adopted for the Church of England, *i. e.*, one further removed from that of Rome. Many usages retained by Elizabeth, such as wearing the surplice, making the sign of the cross in baptism, etc., gave them offense. As they refused to accept the Act of Uniformity, they were known as *Nonconformists*; those who afterward formed separate congregations were called *Separatists* and *Independents* (Hist. U. S., p. 53).

Afterward they began to withdraw, and each to hold its own services in private houses. The Act of Uniformity was, however, rigidly enforced. Many Catholics were executed. The Nonconformists were punished by fine, imprisonment, and exile, but their dauntless love of liberty and firm resistance to royal authority gave the party great strength.

Mary Queen of Scots, grandniece of Henry VIII., was the next heir to the English throne. At the French court she had assumed the title of Queen of England; and the Catholics, considering the marriage with Anne Boleyn void, looked upon her as their legitimate sovereign. After the death of Francis II. she returned to Scotland. The Reformation, under the preaching of John Knox, had there made great progress. Mary's Catholicism aroused the hostility of her Protestant subjects, and her amusements shocked the rigid Scotch reformers as much as their austerity displeased the gay and fascinating queen. She was soon married to her cousin Lord Darnley. His weakness and vice quickly forfeited her love. One day, with some of his companions, he dragged her secretary, Rizzio, from her supper-table, and murdered him almost at her feet. Mary never forgave this brutal crime. A few months later the lonely house in which Darnley was lying sick was blown up, and he was killed. Mary's marriage soon after with the Earl of Bothwell, the suspected murderer, aroused deep indignation. She was forced to resign the crown to her infant son, James VI. Finally she fled to England, where Elizabeth held her as a prisoner. For over eighteen years the beautiful captive was the center of innumerable conspiracies. The discovery of a plot to assassinate Elizabeth and put her rival on the throne brought the unfortunate Mary to the block (1587).

¹ A scaffold covered with black cloth was built in the hall of Fotheringay Castle. In the gray light of a February morning, Mary appeared attired in black, her radiant

The Invincible Armada.—As Elizabeth aided the Protestants in the Netherlands,¹ and her daring cruisers greatly



PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.

annoyed the Spanish commerce, Philip resolved to conquer England. For three years Spain rang with the din of preparation. The danger united England, and Catholics and Protestants alike rallied around their queen. The command of the fleet was given to Lord Howard (a Catholic nobleman), while under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. One day in July, 1588, the Armada was descried off Plymouth, one hundred and forty ships sailing in a crescent form, seven miles in length. Beacons flashed the alarm from every hill along the coast, and the English ships hurried to the attack. Light, swift, and

manned by the boldest seamen, they hung on the rear of the advancing squadron; poured shot into the unwieldy, slow-sailing Spanish galleons; clustered like angry wasps about

beauty dimmed by her long imprisonment, but her courage unshaken. Throwing off her outer robe, beneath which was a crimson dress, she stood forth against the black background blood-red from head to foot. With two blows the executioner did his work, and Mary's stormy life was ended. The execution of Mary is considered by many as the greatest blot on the memory of Queen Elizabeth.

¹ Elizabeth's favorite, the worthless Earl of Leicester, conducted an expedition to Holland (p. 143), but it effected nothing. The engagement before Zutphen, however, is famous for the death of Sir Philip Sidney,—“the Flower of Chivalrie.” In his dying agony, he begged for a drink of water. Just as he lifted the cup to his lips, he caught the wistful glance of a wounded soldier near by, and exclaimed, “Give it to him. His need is greater than mine.”

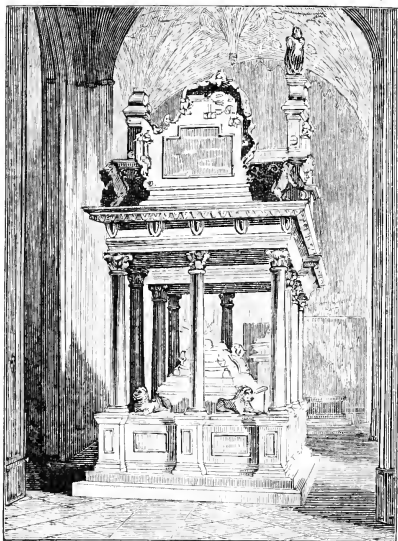
their big antagonists; and, darting to and fro, prolonged the fight, off and on, for a week. The Spaniards then took refuge in the roads of Calais. Here the Duke of Parma was to join them with seventeen thousand veterans; but in the dead of night Howard sent into the port blazing fire-ships, and the Spaniards, panic-struck, stood to sea. With daylight the English started in keen pursuit. The Spanish admiral, thinking no longer of victory but only of escape, attempted to return home by sailing around Scotland. Fearful storms arose. Ship after ship, crippled in spar and hull, went down before the fury of the northern blasts. Scarcely one third of the fleet escaped to tell the fearful tale of the loss of the Spanish Armada.

The Effect of this victory was to make England mistress of the sea, to insure the independence of Holland, to encourage the Huguenots in France, and to weaken Spanish influence in European affairs. From this shipwreck dates the decay of Spain (p. 143).

Commerce was encouraged by Elizabeth, and her reign was an era of maritime adventure. The old Viking spirit blazed forth anew. English sailors—many of whom were, by turns, explorers, pirates, and Protestant knight-errants—traversed every sea. Frobisher, daring Arctic icebergs, sought the Northwest Passage. Drake sailed round the world, capturing *en route* many a galleon laden with the gold and silver of the New World. Hawkins traced the coast of Guinea. Sir Walter Raleigh attempted to plant a colony in Virginia, so named, by this courtier's tact, after the Virgin Queen. In 1600 the East India Company was formed, and from this sprung the English empire in India.

Elizabeth's Favorites cast a gleam of romance over her reign. Notwithstanding her real strength and ability, she was capricious, jealous, petulant, deceitful, and vain as any

coquette. With waning beauty, she became the greedier of compliments. Her youthful courtiers, humoring this weakness, would, while approaching the throne, shade their eyes with their hands, as if dazzled by her radiance. Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, and son of Northumberland (p. 155), was her earliest favorite.¹ After Leicester's



TOMB OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

death, the Earl of Essex succeeded to the royal regard. Once, during a heated discussion, Essex turned his back upon Elizabeth, whereupon she boxed his ears. The favorite, forgetting his position, laid his hand upon his sword. But the queen forgave the insult, and sent him to Ireland, then in revolt. Essex met with little success, and, against Elizabeth's orders, returned, and rushed into her presence unannounced.

Though forgiven again, he was restive under the restrictions imposed, and made a wild attempt to raise a revolt in London. For this he was tried and beheaded. Even at the last, his life would have been spared, if Elizabeth had received a ring which, in a moment of tenderness, she had given him to send her whenever he needed her help.

¹ Of the magnificent entertainment given to Elizabeth in his castle, of the story of the ill-fated Amy Robsart, and of the queen's infatuation with this arrogant, vicious man, Scott has told in his inimitable tale of *Kenilworth*.

Two years later, the Countess of Nottingham on her death-bed revealed the secret. Essex had intrusted her with the ring, but she withheld it from the queen. Elizabeth in her rage shook the expiring woman, exclaiming, "God may forgive you, but I never can." From this time, the queen, sighing, weeping, and refusing food and medicine, rapidly declined to her death (1603).

THE CIVILIZATION.

The Progress of Civilization during the first modern century was rapid. The revival of learning that swept over Europe, heralding the dawn of the new era; the outburst of maritime adventure that followed the discovery of America; the spread of the "New Learning" by means of books, schools, and travel; and the establishment of strong, centralized governments,—all produced striking results.

Commerce.—The wonderful development of commerce we have already traced in connection with the history of Spain, Portugal, Holland, England, etc. The colonies of these nations now formed a large portion of their wealth. The navies of Europe were already formidable. Sovereign and people alike saw, in foreign trade and in distant discoveries and conquests, new sources of gain and glory.

Art.—Italy had now become the instructress of the nations. She gave to the world Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Correggio, Michael Angelo, Titian, Paul Veronese, Andrea del Sarto, Guido Reni, Benvenuto Cellini,—masters of art, whose works have been the models for all succeeding ages. Painting, sculpture, and architecture felt the magic touch of their genius. The intercourse with Italy caused by the Italian wars did much to naturalize in France that love of art for which she has since been so renowned. Francis I. brought home with him sculptors and painters; and a new style of architecture, known as the French Renaissance, arose.

Literature.—England bore the choicest fruit of the Revival of Learning. All the Tudors, except Henry VII., were scholars. Henry VIII. spoke four languages; and Elizabeth, after she became queen, "read more Greek in a day," as her tutor, old Roger Ascham, used to say, "than many a clergyman read of Latin in a week." During the brilliant era following the defeat of the Armada, the English language took on its modern form. Poetry, that had been silent since the days of Chaucer, broke forth anew. Never did there shine a more splendid galaxy of writers than when, toward the end of the 16th century,

there were in London, Shakspeare, Bacon, Spenser, Chapman, Drayton, Raleigh, Ben Jonson, Marlowe, and Sir Philip Sidney. Shakspeare perfected the drama ; Bacon developed a new philosophy ; Hooker shaped the strength of prose, and Spenser, the harmony of poetry.



Bacon.

Sidney.

Shakspeare.

Raleigh.

Spenser.

THE GLORY OF THE ELIZABETHAN AGE.

Modern Science already began to manifest glimpses of the new methods of thought. The fullness of its time was not to come until our own day. Copernicus taught that the sun is the center of the solar system. Vesalius, by means of dissection, laid the foundation of anatomy. Galileo, in the cathedral at Pisa, caught the secret of the pendulum. Kepler was now watching the planets. Gilbert, Elizabeth's physician, was making a few electrical experiments. Gesner and Cæsalpinus were finding out how to classify animals and plants. Palissy, the potter, declared his belief that fossil shells were once real shells.

"MERRIE ENGLANDE" UNDER "GOOD QUEEN BESS."

Home Life.—*Mansions.*—The gloomy walls and serried battlements of the feudal fortress now gave place to the pomp and grace of the Elizabethan hall. A mixed and florid architecture, the transition from Gothic to Classical, marked the dawn of the Renaissance. Tall molded and twisted chimneys, grouped in stacks ; crocketed and gilded turrets ; fanciful weather-vanes ; gabled and fretted fronts ; great oriel

windows; and the stately terraces and broad flights of steps which led to a formal garden,—marked the exterior of an Elizabethan mansion. In the interior were spacious apartments approached by grand staircases; immense mullioned and transomed windows; huge carved oak or marble chimney-pieces, reaching up to gilded and heavily ornamented ceilings; and wainseoted walls covered with pictorial tapestries so loosely hung as to furnish a favorite hiding-place. Chimneys and large glass windows were the especial “modern improvements.” The houses, which three centuries before were lighted only by loop-holes, now reveled in a broad glare of sunlight; and the newly found “chimney-corner” brought increased domestic pleasure. Manor-houses were built in the form of the letter E (in honor of the Queen’s initial), having two projecting wings, and a porch in the middle. A flower-garden was essential, and a surrounding moat was still common. Town-houses, constructed of an oak frame filled in with brick or with lath-and-plaster, had each successive story projecting over the next lower; so that in the narrow streets the inmates on the upper floor could almost shake hands with their neighbors across the way.

Furniture, even in noble mansions, was still rude and defective; and though the lofty halls and banqueting-rooms were hung with costly arras and glittered with plate,—to possess less than a value of £100 in silver plate being a confession of poverty,—the rooms in daily use were often bare enough. Henry VIII.’s bed-chamber contained only the bed, two Flemish court-cupboards, a joined stool, a steel mirror, and the andirons, firepan, tongs, and fire-forks belonging to the hearth. It was an age of ornamental ironwork, and the 16th-century hearth and household utensils were models of elegant design. The chief furniture of a mansion consisted of grotesquely carved dressers or cupboards; round, folding tables; a few chests and presses; sometimes a household clock, which was as yet a rarity; a day-bed or sofa, considered an excess of luxury; carpets for couches and floors; stiff, high-backed chairs; and some “forms,” or benches, with movable cushions. The bed was still the choicest piece of furniture. It was canopied and festooned like a throne; the mattress was of the softest down; the sheets were Holland linen; and over the blankets was laid a coverlet embroidered in silk and gold with the arms of its owner. There were often several of these cumbersome four-posters in one chamber. A portable bed was carried about in a leathern case whenever the lord traveled; for he was no longer content, like his ancestors, with the floor or a hard bench.

The poorer classes of Elizabeth’s time had also improved in condition. Many still lived in hovels made of clay-plastered wattles, having a hole in the roof for chimney, and a clay floor strewn with rushes, “under which,” said Erasmus, “lies unmolested an ancient collection of beer, grease, fragments, bones, and everything nasty.” These were

the people whose uncleanly habits fed the terrible plagues that periodically raged in England. But houses of brick and stone as well as of oak were now abundant among the yeomanry. The wooden ladle and trencher had given way to the pewter spoon and platter; and the feather bed and pillow were fast displacing the sack of straw and the log bolster. Sea-coal (mineral coal) began to be used in the better houses, as the destruction of forests had reduced the supply of firewood. The dirt and sulphurous odor of the coal prejudiced many against its use, and it was forbidden to be burned in London during the sitting of Parliament, lest the health of the country members should suffer.



A GROUP OF COURTIER'S IN THE TIME OF ELIZABETH.

Dress.—The fashionable man now wore a large starched ruff; a padded, long-waisted doublet; “trunk-hose” distended with wool, hair, bran, or feathers,—a fashion dating from Henry VIII., whose flattering courtiers stuffed their clothes as the king grew fat; richly ornamented nether stocks, confined with jeweled and embroidered garters; gemmed and rosetted shoes; and, dangling at dangerous angles over all, a long Toledo blade. The courtiers glistened with precious stones, and even the immortal Shakspeare wore rings in his ears! The ladies appeared in caps, hats, and hoods of every shape, one of the prettiest being that now known as the Mary Queen of Scots cap. The hair was dyed, curled, frizzed, and crimped, in a variety of forms and colors. Elizabeth, who, it is said, had eighty wigs, was seen sometimes in black hair, sometimes in red: the Queen of Scots wore successively black, yellow, and auburn hair. But yellow was most in favor; and many a little street blonde was decoyed aside and shorn of her locks, to furnish a periwig for some fine lady. The linen ruff, worn in triple folds about the neck, was of “pre-

posterior amplitude and terrible stiffness."¹ The long, rigid bodice, descending almost to the knees, was crossed and recrossed with lacers; and about and below it stretched the farthingale, standing out like a large balloon. Knitted and clocked black-silk stockings—a new importation from France—were worn with high-heeled shoes, or with white, green, or yellow slippers. Perfumed and embroidered gloves; a gold-handled fan, finished with ostrich or peacock feathers; a small looking-glass hanging from the girdle; a black-velvet mask; and long loops of pearls about the neck,—completed the belle's costume.

At Table all wore their hats, as they did also in church or at the theater. The noon dinner was the formal meal of the day, and was characterized by stately decorum. It was "served to the Virgin Queen as if it were an act of worship, amid kneeling pages, guards, and ladies, and to the sound of trumpets and kettledrums." The nobles followed the royal example and kept up princely style. The old ceremonious custom of washing hands was still observed; perfumed water was used, and the ewer, basin, and hand-towel were ostentatiously employed. The guests were ushered into the hall, and seated at the long table according to their rank; the conspicuous salt-cellar—an article which superstition decreed should always be the first one placed on the table—still separated the honored from the inferior guests. The favorite dishes were a boar's head wreathed with rosemary, and sucking-pigs which had been fed on dates and muscadine. Fruit-jellies and preserves were delicacies recently introduced. Etiquette pervaded everything, even to the important display of plate on the dresser: thus, a prince of royal blood had five steps or shelves to his cupboard; a duke, four; a lesser noble, three; a knight-banneret, two; and a simple gentleman, one. Forks were still unknown, but they were brought from Italy early in the 17th century. Bread and meats were presented on the point of a knife, the food being conveyed to the mouth by the left hand. After dinner the guests retired to the withdrawing-room, or to the garden-house, for the banquet. Here choice wines, pastry, and sweetmeats were served, and a "marchpane" (a little sugar-and-almond castle) was merrily battered to pieces with sugarplums. Music, mummery, and masquerading enlivened the feast.

With common people, ale, spiced and prepared in various forms, was the popular drink; and the ale-houses of the day, which were frequented too often by women, were centers of vice and dissipation. Tea and coffee were yet unknown, and were not introduced till the next century.²

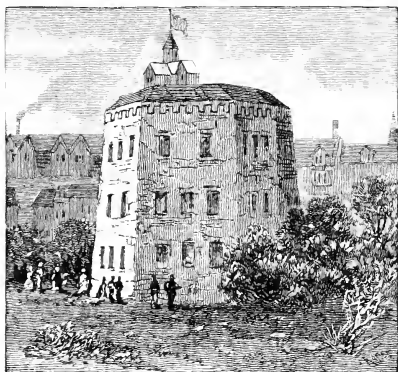
¹ Starch, then new in England, was called by Philip Stubbe "the devil's liquor with which the women smeare and stanche their neckerchiefs." Its inventress perished on the scaffold, wearing one of her own stiff collars, after which they went out of fashion.

² The Portuguese imported some tea from China in the 16th century, but it was over sixty years after the death of Elizabeth before the munificent gift of two pounds

Domestic Manners were stern and formal. Sons, even in mature life, stood silent and uncovered in their father's presence, and daughters knelt on a cushion until their mother had retired. The yard-long fan-handles served for whipping-rods, and discipline was enforced so promptly and severely that grown-up men and women often trembled at the sight of their parents. Lady Jane Grey confided to Roger Ascham that her parents used "so sharply to taunt her, and to give her such *pinches, nips, and bobs*" at the slightest offense, that she was in constant terror before them. At school the same principles prevailed, and the 16th-century schoolboy could well appreciate the classically recorded woes of the little Ancient Roman (Anc. Peo., p. 280).

Street Life.—The Elizabethan city-madam beguiled the hours of her husband's absence at the mart, or exchange, by sitting with her daughters outside the street-door, under the successive projections of her tall, half-timber house, and gazing upon the sights of the dirty, narrow, crooked, unpaved, London highway. Here, while they regaled themselves with sweetmeats, or smoked the newly imported Indian

weed, they watched the full-toileted gallant in his morning lounge toward St. Paul's churchyard and the neighboring book-stalls, or his after-dinner stroll toward Blackfriars Theater, where, at three o'clock or at the floating of the play-house flag, was to be acted the newest comedy of a rising young play-writer,—one William Shakspeare. Occasionally a roystering party of roughs, armed with wooden spears and shields, would be seen hurrying to the Thames for a boat-joust, bawling the



SHAKSPEARE'S GLOBE THEATER.

while to one another their braggart threats of a good wetting in the coming clash of boats; or one of the new-fashioned, carved, canopied, and curtained wagons, called coaches, would go jolting along, having neither springs nor windows, but with wide-open sides which offered unobstructed view of the painted and bewigged court-ladies who filled it; or smiles, and bows, and the throwing of kisses, would mark the

of tea, from the English East India Company to Catharine, queen of Charles II., heralded in England a new national beverage. Tea was soon afterwards sold at from six to ten guineas per pound. The first coffee-house was opened in 1651.

passing of a friend with her retinue of flat-capped, blue-gowned, white stockinged 'prentices,—a comparatively new class, whose street clubs were destined thenceforth to figure in nearly every London riot, and who were finally to be the conquerors at Marston Moor and Naseby; or a group of high-born ladies, out for a frolic, would cross the distant bridge on their way to Southwark bear-garden, where for threepence they could enjoy the roars and flounderings of a chained and blinded bear worried by English bulldogs. Now her ears caught the sound of angry voices from the

neighboring ale-house, where a party of women were drinking and gambling; and now a poor old withered dame rushed swiftly by, hotly pursued by a shouting crowd, armed with long pins to prick "the witch" and see if blood would follow, or, grasping at her hair, to tear out a handful to burn for a counter-charm. Anon, a poor



THE RACK.

(A Mode of Punishment in the 16th Century.)

fellow, with the blood flowing from his freshly cropped ears, came staggering home from a public flogging,—it was his second punishment for vagrancy, and lucky he to escape being branded with a V, and sold as a slave to his informer. There was, indeed, no end of "rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy beggars,"¹ singly or in crowds, who passed and repassed from morning till night; and many a bloody brawl, robbery, and even murder, this 16th-century Londoner could witness from her own street-door. At night the narrow city-lanes swarmed with thieves, who skillfully dodged the rays of the flaring cresset borne by the marching watch. Fortunately early hours were fashionable, and nine o'clock saw the bulk of society-folk within their own homes.

Along the wretched country roads, most travel was on horseback, the ladies riding on a pillion behind a servant. There was no regular stage communication. On the great road to Scotland were some royal post stations, but ordinary letters were sent by chance merchants or by a special courier.

Holiday Life.—Sunday was the great day for all diversions, from

¹ It is curious to find included under this head the scholars of Oxford and Cambridge Universities, who were expressly "forbidden to beg except they had the authority of the chancellor" (compare *A German Traveling Student*, p. 170).



LONDON WATCHMEN (16TH CENTURY).

cock-fighting to theater-going. Numerous church festivals gave every working-man a round of relaxation. Christmas-time, especially, was one long saturnalia, from All-hallow Eve to the Feast of the Purification. What mummerings and masqueradings, what pipings and drummings, what jingling of bells and shouting of songs, what flaunting of plumes and mad whirling of kerchiefs around all England! Through every borough and village, a motley, grotesquely masked troop of revelers, armed with bells, drums, and squeaking fifes, and mounted

on hobby-horses or great pasteboard dragons, followed its chosen "Lord of Misrule" wherever his riotous humor led; even into the churches, where the service was abruptly dropped, and the congregation clambered upon the high-backed seats, to see the wild pranks of the licensed merry-crew; even into the churchyards, where, among the clustering graves, they broached and drank barrels of strong, coarse ale. There was gentler but no less hearty cheer by the home firesides, where the huge yule-log on Christmas eve, and the rosemary-garnished boar's head at Christmas dinner, were each brought in with joyous ceremonies. Servants and children joined in the season's universal license; every house resounded with romping games, and every street re-echoed Christmas carols.

And who could resist May-day? The tall, garlanded May-pole, drawn in by flower-wreathed oxen; the jollity of the ceaseless dance about its fluttering ribands; the by-play of Robin Hood and Friar Tuck; the jingling Morris-dancers; the trippings of the milk-maids with their crowns of silver tankards; and the ubiquitous, rollicking hobby-horse and dragon,—made the livelong day one burst of happy frolic.

SCENES IN GERMAN LIFE.

Scene I.—*The Home of the Land-Junker*, or country knight, is a gloomy, dirty, and comfortless castle. Placed on a barren height, exposed to winter blast and summer sun; destitute of pure water, though

surrounded by stagnant ditches; lighted by dim panes in tiny windows; crowded with inmates (the junker's younger brothers and cousins, with their families, numberless servants, men-at-arms, and laborers); pestered in summer by noisome smells and insect hordes, that rise from steaming pools and filth-heaps in the foul courtyard; cold and dreary in winter, despite the huge tiled stoves fed by forest logs, and so broad that beds can be made upon them; scantily furnished, but always well stocked with weapons kept bright by constant use against the raids of roving marauders and quarrelsome neighbors,—the junker's dwelling is still more a fortress than a home. It has its prisons, and they are not unused. In this one, perhaps, pines and frets a burgher-merchant, waylaid and robbed upon the road and now held for his ransom, who wearily eats his dole of black bread while the lady of the castle, singing cheerfully, makes coats and mantles of the fine cloth stolen from his pack; in that one sulks a peasant, sore with the stripes received for crossing the path of the master's chase, and in imagination sharpening his next arrow for the master's heart. Jostling one another over the open kitchen fire, the servants of the various households push and crowd and wrangle; while from the courtyard comes the sound of playing children, barking dogs, and cackling geese.

The junker's frau is general housekeeper, head-cook, and family doctor; and she has learned by frequent experience how to manage a tipsy husband and his rude guests, who amuse themselves in her presence by making coarse jokes and by blackening the faces of her domestics. She is proud of her family brocades and gold heirlooms, and looks wrathfully on the costly furs, velvets, and pearls worn without right—as she thinks—by the upstart wives of rich city burgesses.

The junker's sons grow up with horses, dogs, and servants. They study a little Latin at the village school, watch the poultry for their mother, and scour the woods for wild pears and mushrooms to be dried for winter use. Occasionally a boy goes through the course at the university; but it is oftener the son of a shoemaker or a village pastor, than of a nobleman, who rises to distinction. Now and then a strolling ballad-singer delights the junker's ear with a choice bit of scandal that he has been hired to propagate far and wide in satirical verse; or an itinerant peddler brings the little irregularly published news-sheet, with its startling accounts of maidens possessed with demons, the latest astrological prediction, and the strange doings of Dr. Martin Luther. Otherwise the master hunts, quarrels, feasts, and carouses. Ruined estates, heavy debts, and prolonged lawsuits disturb his few sober hours. He strives to bolster up his fortunes by building toll-bridges (even where there is no river), and by keeping such wretched roads that the traveling merchant's wagons unavoidably upset, when he, as lord of the manor, claims the scattered goods.

Scene II.—*The Home of the Rich Patrician* is luxurious. He is the money-owner of the realm. A merchant-prince, he traffics with Italy and the Levant, buys a whole year's harvest from the King of Portugal, has invoices from both the Indies, and takes personal journeys to Calcutta. He is statesman, soldier, and art-patron. For him are painted Albert Dürer's most elaborate pictures, and in his valuable library are found the choicest books, fresh from the new art of printing. He educates his sons in Italy, and inspires his daughters with a love for learning. He shapes the German policy of imperial cities, and supplies emperor and princes with gold from his strong-banded coffers. When, in 1575, Herr Marcus Fugger entertains at dinner a wandering Silesian prince, that potentate's chamberlain is dazed by the costly display, which he thus notes down in his journal: "Such a banquet I never beheld. The repast was spread in a hall with more gold than color; the marble floor was smooth as ice; the sideboard, placed the whole length of the hall, was set out with drinking-vessels and rare Venetian glasses; there was the value of more than a ton of gold. Herr Fugger gave to his Princely Highness for a drinking-cup an artistically formed ship of the most beautiful Venetian glass. He took his Princely Highness through the prodigious great house to a turret, where he showed him a treasure of chains, jewels, and precious stones, besides curious coins, and pieces of gold as large as my head. Afterward he opened a chest full of ducats and crowns up to the brim. The turret itself was paved halfway down from the top with gold thalers." —*Diary of Hans Von Schweinichen.*

Scene III.—*A German Traveling Student* (16th century).—The German boy who wished to become a scholar had often a weary road to plod. As *Schütz*, or younger student, he was always the fag of some *Bacchant*, or older comrade, for whom he was forced to perform the most menial offices,—his only consolation being that the bacchant, should he ever enter a university, would be equally humiliated by the students whose circle he would join. Thousands of bacchanten and schützen wandered over Germany, sipping like bees, first at one school, then at another; everywhere begging their way under an organized system, which protected older resident students from the greedy zeal of new arrivals. The autobiography of Thomas Platter, who began life as a Swiss shepherd-boy and ended it as a famous Basle schoolmaster, gives us some curious details of this scholastic vagrancy. At nine years of age he was sent to the village priest, of whom he "learned to sing a little of the *salve* and to beg for eggs, besides being cruelly beaten and oftentimes dragged by the ears out of the house." He soon joined his wandering cousin, Paulus, who proved even a harder master than the priest. "There were eight of us traveling together, three of whom were schützen, I being the youngest. When I could not keep up well,

Paulus came behind me with a rod and switched me on my bare legs, for I had no stockings and bad shoes." The little schützen had to beg or steal enough to support their seniors, though they were never allowed to sit at table with them, and were often sent supperless to their bed of foul straw in the stable, while the bacchanten dined and slept in the inn. The party stopped at Nuremberg, then at Dresden, and thence journeyed to Breslau, "suffering much from hunger on the road, eating nothing for days but raw onions and salt, or roasted acorns and crabs. We slept in the open air, for no one would take us in, and often they set the dogs upon us." At Breslau there were seven parishes, each with its separate school supported by alms, no schütz being allowed to beg outside of his own parish. Here also was a hospital for the students, and a specified sum provided by the town for the sick. At the schools the bacchanten had small rooms with straw beds, but the schützen lay on the hearth in winter, and in summer slept on heaps of grass in the churchyard. "When it rained we ran into the school, and if there was a storm we chanted the responsoria and other things almost all night with the succentor." There was such "excellent begging" at Breslau that the party fell ill from over-eating. The little ones were sometimes "treated at the beer-houses to strong Polish peasant beer, and got so drunk we could not find our way home." "In the school, nine bachelors always read together at the same hour in one room, for there were no printed Greek books in the country at that time. The preceptor alone had a printed Terence; what was read had first to be dictated, then parsed and construed, and lastly explained; so that the bacchanten, when they went away, carried with them large sheets of writing." As to the schützen, the begging absorbed most of their time. Soon the wandering fever came on again, and the party tramped back to Dresden and then to Ulm, falling meantime into great want. "Often I was so hungry that I drove the dogs in the streets away from their bones, and gnawed them." The bacchanten now became so cruel and despotic that Thomas ran away, weeping bitterly that no one cared for him. "It was cold, and I had neither cap nor shoes, only torn stockings and a scanty jacket." Paulus, having no thought of giving up so good a provider, followed him hither and thither to the great fright and distress of the poor little schütz, who had many a narrow escape from the vengeance of his pursuer. At last he reached his beloved Switzerland, which, he pathetically records, "made me so happy I thought I was in heaven." At Zurich he offered his begging services to some bacchanten in return for their teaching, but "learned no more with them than with the others." At Strasburg he had no better success, but at Schlettstadt he found "the first school in which things went on well." It was the year of the Diet of Worms, and Thomas was now eighteen years old. He had been a nominal pupil for nine years, but could not yet read. His

hard life had left its trace, and though, after the custom of the time, his name was formally Latinized into Platterus, his preceptor contemptuously added: "Poof! what a measly schütz to have such a fine name!" Scholars soon so increased in this town that there was not support for all, and Thomas tried another village, "where there was a tolerably good school and more food; but we were obliged to be so constantly in church that we lost all our time." At last he returned to Zurich, and entered under "a good and learned but severe school-master. I sat down in a corner near his chair, and said to myself, 'In this corner will I study or die.' I got on well with Father Myconius: he read Terence to us, and we had to conjugate and decline every word of a play. It often happened that my jacket was wet and my eyes almost blind with fear, and yet he never gave me a blow, save once on my cheek." Thomas's trials and struggles continued for some years longer. He learned rope-making as a means of support, and used to fasten the separate sheets of his Greek Plautus (a precious gift from a Basle printer) to the rope, that he might read while working. He studied much at night, and in time rose to be a corrector of the press, then citizen and printer, and finally rector of the Latin School at Basle.

SUMMARY.

The sixteenth was the century of Charles V., Francis I., Henry VIII., Pope Leo X., Loyola, Luther, Calvin, Philip II., William the Silent, Catharine de' Medici, Henry IV., Queen Elizabeth, Mary Stuart, Shakspeare, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Correggio, and Copernicus. It saw the battle of Pavia; the conquest of Mexico and Peru; the Reformation in Germany; the founding of the order of Jesuits; the abdication of Charles V.; the battle of Lepanto; the Massacre of St. Bartholomew; the Union of Utrecht; the triumph of the Beggars; the death of Mary Stuart; the defeat of the Spanish Armada; the battle of Ivry; and the Edict of Nantes.

READING REFERENCES.

The General Modern Histories on p. 123, and Special Histories of England, France, Germany, etc., on p. 112.—*D'Aubigné's Reformation.*—*Ranke's History of the Popes.*—*Robertson's Life of Charles V.*—*Motley's Rise of the Dutch Republic, United Netherlands, and John of Barneveld.*—*Spalding's History of the Protestant Reformation (Catholic view).*—*Pressensé's Early Years of Christianity.*—*Seeböhm's Era of Protestant Revolution (Epochs of History Series).*—*Fisher's Reformation.*—*Häusser's Period of the Reformation.*—*Hübner's Life of Sixtus V.*—*Audin's Life of Luther (Catholic view).*—*Froude's Short Studies (Erasmus and Luther).*—*Smiles's The Huguenots.*—*Hanna's Wars of the Huguenots.*—*Freer's Histories of Henry III., and Maria de' Medici.*—*Lingard's History of England (Era of the Reformation, Catholic view).*—*Macaulay's Ivry (poem).*—*James's Henry of Guise, and Huguenots (fiction).*—*Dumas's*

Forty-five Guardsmen (fiction).—Ebers's *Burgomaster's Wife* (*Siege of Leyden*).—Miss Yonge's *Unknown to History* (Romance illustrating *Mary Stuart's times*).—Mrs. Charles's *Schönberg-Cotta Family*.

CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.		A. D.
Henry VIII., King of England	1509-47	Treaty of Passau	1552
Francis I., King of France	1515-47	Abdication of Charles V.	1556
Luther publishes his theses	1517	Elizabeth, Queen of England	1558-1603
Charles V., Emperor of Germany	1520-56	Battle of Lepanto	1571
Cortes takes Mexico	1521	Massacre of St. Bartholomew	1572
Battle of Pavia	1525	Siege of Leyden	1574
Bourbon sacks Rome	1527	Mary Queen of Scots beheaded	1587
Reformers called Protestants	1529	Defeat of the Spanish Armada	1588
Pizarro conquers Peru	1533	Henry IV., King of France	1589
Order of Jesuits founded by Loyola	1534	Battle of Ivry	1590
Council of Trent	1545	Edict of Nantes	1598

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
Henry VIII.... 1509	Louis XII..... 1498	Maximilian I.. 1493	Ferdinand and
	Francis I..... 1515	Charles V..... 1520	Isabella..... 1479
Edward VI 1547	Henry II..... 1547		Charles I..... 1516
Mary 1553			
Elizabeth 1558	Francis II..... 1559	Ferdinand I.... 1556	Philip II..... 1556
	Charles IX..... 1560	Maximilian II. 1564	
	Henry III..... 1574	Rudolph II.... 1576	
	Henry IV..... 1589		Philip III..... 1598



BRINGING IN THE YULE LOG AT CHRISTMAS.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

I. THE THIRTY-YEARS' WAR.

The Causes of this war were mainly : 1. The smoldering religious hatred of half a century, kindled afresh by the Bohemian troubles ; 2. The church lands which the Protestants had seized and the Catholic princes sought to reclaim ; 3. The emperor Ferdinand's determination, backed by Spain, to subjugate Germany to his faith and house.

Opening of the War.—The Bohemians, enraged by Ferdinand's intolerance (p. 138), revolted, threw two of the royal councilors out of a window of the palace at Prague, and chose as king the elector-palatine Frederick, son-in-law of James I. of England. War ensued,—the old Hussite struggle over again. But Frederick's army was defeated near Prague in its first battle, and the "Winter King," as he was called, for he reigned only one winter, instead of gaining a kingdom, in the end lost his Palatinate, and died in poverty and exile.¹ Meanwhile Ferdinand was chosen emperor.

Spread of the War.—As the seat of the war passed from Bohemia into the Palatinate, the other German states, in spite of their singular indifference and jealousy, became involved in the struggle. Finally Christian IV. of Denmark, who, as Duke of Holstein, was a prince of the empire,

Geographical Questions.—Locate Prague ; Magdeburg ; Leipsic ; Lützen ; Rocroi ; Freiburg ; Nordlingen ; Lens ; Rastadt ; Strasburg.—Point out Bohemia ; Westphalia ; Saxony ; Pomerania ; The Palatinate ; Brandenburg ; Alsace ; Brussels ; Luxemburg ; Nimeguen ; Fleurus ; Steinkirk ; Neerwinden ; Blenheim ; Ramillies ; Oudenarde ; Malplaquet ; Dunkirk ; Rochelle ; Nantes ; Utrecht.—Dover ; Marston Moor ; Naseby ; Dunbar ; Worcester.

¹ Little did his wife Elizabeth dream, as she wandered among foreign courts begging shelter for herself and children, that her grandson would sit on the English throne.

espoused Frederick's cause. In this crisis, *Count Wallenstein* volunteered to raise an army for the emperor, and support it from the hostile territory. The magic of his name and the hope of plunder drew adventurers from all sides. With



100,000 men he invaded Denmark. Christian was forced to flee to his islands, and finally to sue for peace (1629).

Ferdinand's Triumph now appeared complete. Ger-

many lay helpless at his feet. The dream of Charles V.—an Austrian monarch, absolute, like a French or a Spanish king—seemed about to be realized. Ferdinand ventured to force the Protestants to restore the church lands. But Wallenstein's mercenaries had become as obnoxious to the Catholics as to the Protestants, and Ferdinand was induced to dismiss him just at the moment when, as the event proved, he most needed his services: for at this juncture

Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, landed with a small army on the Baltic coast. A pious, prudent, honest, resolute, generous man; maintaining strict discipline among his soldiers, who were devoted to their leader; holding prayers in camp twice a day; sharing every hardship with the meanest private, and every danger with the bravest; treating the enemy with humanity, respecting the rights of the inhabitants of the country, and paying for the food he took; improving the art of war by breaking the heavy masses of the army into small battalions, by throwing off their armor, by reducing the weight of their weapons, and by mingling the cavalry, pikemen, artillery, and musketeers so as to support one another in battle,—such was the man who now appeared as the Protestant champion. In Vienna they laughed at the “Snow King,” as they called him, and said he would melt under a southern sun. But by the next summer he had taken eighty towns and fortresses. France, then ruled by Richelieu (p. 181), made a treaty promising him money to pay his army; and, though England did not join him, thousands of English and Scotch rallied around the banner of the Lion of the North.

Tilly, the best imperial general after Wallenstein, now laid siege to Magdeburg (1631). Gustavus hastened to its relief. But, while he was negotiating leave to cross the Protestant states of Saxony and Brandenburg, Magdeburg was taken by

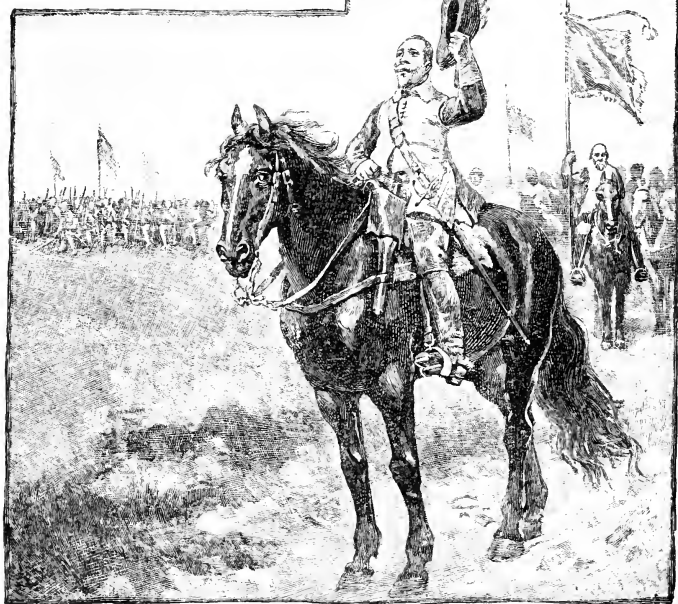
storm. For three days Tilly's bandit soldiers robbed and murdered throughout the doomed city. From that time this hero of thirty-six battles never won another field. On the plain of *Leipsic*, Gustavus captured Tilly's guns, turned them upon him, and drove his army into headlong flight. The victor, falling on his knees amid the dead and dying, gave thanks to God for his success. The next year, at the crossing of the *Lech*, Tilly was mortally wounded.

*Count Wallenstein*¹ was now recalled, the humbled emperor giving him absolute power over his army. He soon gathered a force of men, who knew no trade but arms, and no principle but plunder. After months of maneuvering, during which these skillful generals sought to take each other at a disadvantage, Gustavus, learning that Wallenstein had sent his best cavalry-officer, Pappenheim, with ten thousand men, into Westphalia, attacked the imperial forces at

Lützen, near *Leipsic* (1632). After prayer, his army sang Luther's hymn, "God is a strong tower," when he himself led the advance. Three times that day the hard-fought field was lost and won. At last Gustavus, while rallying his troops, was shot. The riderless horse, galloping wildly down the line, spread the news. But the Swedes, undismayed, fought under Bernard of Weimar more desperately than ever. Pappenheim, who had been hastily recalled, came up only in time to meet their fierce charge, and to die at the head of his dragoons. Night put an end to the carnage.

¹ Wallenstein lived on his princely estates with regal pomp. He was served by nobles; sixty high-born pages did his bidding, and sixty life-guards watched in his ante-chamber. His horses ate from mangers of polished steel, and their stalls were decorated with paintings. When he traveled, his suite filled sixty carriages; and his baggage, one hundred wagons. The silence of death brooded around him. He so dreaded noise that the streets leading to his palace in Prague were closed by chains, lest the sound of carriage-wheels should reach his ear. He believed in astrology, and that the stars foretold him a brilliant destiny. His men thought him to be in league with spirits, and hence invulnerable in battle. Like Tilly, he wore in his hat a blood-red feather, and it is said that his usual dress was scarlet.

Wallenstein crept off in the dark, leaving his colors and cannon behind. Gustavus had fallen, like Epaminondas, in the hour of victory.



BEFORE THE BATTLE OF LÜTZEN.

After the Death of Gustavus, the war had little interest. As the Swedish crown fell to Christina, a little girl of six years, the direction of military affairs was given to the chancellor Oxenstiern, an able statesman; under him were Bernard, Duke of Weimar, the Generals Horn and Banér, and later the brilliant Torstenson. Ferdinand, suspecting Wallenstein's fidelity, caused his assassination. At *Nordlingen* (1634) the Swedes met their first great defeat, and the next year most of the Protestant states of Germany

made terms with the emperor. Still for thirteen years longer the war dragged on.

The Character of the contest had now entirely changed. It was no longer a struggle for the supremacy of Catholic or Protestant. The progress of the war had destroyed the feelings with which it had commenced. France had openly taken the field against Spain and Austria. Ferdinand died, and his son, Ferdinand III., came to the throne; Richelieu and Louis XIII. died, but Louis XIV. and his minister, Mazarin, continued the former policy. Both French and Swedes strove to get lands in Germany, and Ferdinand struggled to save as much as possible from their grasping hands. The contending armies—composed of the offscourings of all Europe—surged to and fro, leaving behind them a broad track of ruin. The great French generals, Condé and Turenne, masters of a new art of war, by the victories of *Rocroi*, *Freiburg*,¹ *Nordlingen*, and *Lens*, assured the power of France. Maximilian of Bavaria made an heroic stand for the emperor; but at last, Bavaria being overrun, Bohemia invaded, a part of Prague taken,² and Vienna itself threatened, Ferdinand was forced to sign the

Peace of Westphalia (1648).—This treaty—the basis of our modern map of Europe—brought to an end the religious wars of the Continent. It recognized the independence of Holland and Switzerland; granted religious freedom to the Protestant states of Germany; and gave Alsace to France, and a part of Pomerania to Sweden.

The Effect of the Thirty-Years' War upon Germany is not yet effaced. "The whole land," says Carlyle, "had been tortured, torn to pieces, wrecked, and brayed as in a mortar." Two thirds of the population had disappeared. Famine, pestilence, and the sword had converted vast tracts into a wilderness. Whole villages stood empty save

¹ According to tradition, Condé, in this battle, threw his marshal's baton into the enemy's trenches, and then recovered it, sword in hand.

² Thus the Thirty-Years' War, which began at Prague, ended at Prague.

for the famished dogs that prowled around the deserted houses. All idea of nationality was lost; the Holy Roman Empire was practically at an end, and the name German emperor was henceforth merely an empty title of the Austrian rulers; while between the Alps and the Baltic were three hundred petty states, each with its own court, coinage, and customs. Trade, literature, and manufactures were paralyzed. French manners and habits were servilely imitated, and each little court sought to reproduce in miniature the pomp of Versailles. Henceforth, until almost our own times, the empire has no history, and that of the different states is a dreary chapter indeed. "From the Peace of Westphalia to the French Revolution," says Bryce, "it would be hard to find a single grand character, a single noble enterprise, a single sacrifice to public interests, or a single instance where the welfare of the nation was preferred to the selfish passion of the prince. When we ask for an account of the political life of Germany in the 18th century, we hear nothing but the scandals of buzzing courts and the wrangling of diplomatists at never-ending congresses." Even Lessing, the great German author, wrote, "Of the love of country, I have no conception; it appears to me, at best, a heroic weakness which I am right glad to be without."

II. FRANCE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. THE AGE OF RICHELIEU (1622-42).

Louis XIII. (1610-43).—The dagger of Ravallac gave



LOUIS XIII.

the crown to Henry's son, a boy of nine years. The queen-mother, Maria de' Medici, the regent, squandered upon her favorites the treasures saved by the frugal Sully, who now retired in disgrace. The nobles, regaining power, levied taxes and coined money, as in feudal times; while the Huguenots—forming an independent

state within the state—garrisoned fortresses, hired soldiers, and held political assemblies. All was chaos until Louis, having come of age, called a new man to his councils.

Cardinal de Richelieu.¹—Henceforth Louis was the second man in France, but the first in Europe. The king cowered before the genius of his minister, whom he hated and yet obeyed. Richelieu had three objects: to destroy the Huguenots as a party, to subdue the nobles, and to humble Austria.



CARDINAL RICHELIEU.

1. By building a stone mole across the entrance to the harbor of Rochelle and shutting out the English fleet, Richelieu reduced that Huguenot stronghold. The other Calvinist towns then submitting, he generously granted the reformers freedom of worship.

2. By destroying the feudal castles, and by attracting the nobles to Paris, where they became absorbed in the luxuries and frivolities of the court, he weakened their provincial power. The rebellious aristocracy hated the cardinal, and formed conspiracy after conspiracy against him. But he detected each plot, and punished its authors with merciless severity. The nobility crushed, Parliament—the highest

¹ "This extraordinary man," says Miss Edwards in her charming *History of France*, "has been, not inaptly, compared with his predecessor, Wolsey of England. Like him, he was a prelate, a minister, a consummate politician, and a master of the arts of intrigue. He gave his whole attention and all his vast abilities to affairs of state, was prodigal of display, and entertained projects of the most towering ambition. He added to his ministerial and priestly dignities the emoluments and honors of the profession of arms; assumed the dress and title of generalissimo of the French army; and wore alternately the helmet of the warrior and the scarlet hat of the cardinal."

court of law—was forced to register the royal edicts without examination. The monarchy was at last absolute.

3. By supporting the Protestants during the Thirty-Years' War, Richelieu weakened the House of Austria in Germany and Spain, and so made France the head of the European States-System.

Just at the hour of his triumph, Richelieu died. Louis, whose life had been so closely linked to that of his famous minister, survived him only six months.

2. THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV. (1643-1715).

Louis XIV. was only five years old at his father's death. Anne of Austria, the queen-mother, became regent, and



CARDINAL MAZARIN.

Mazarin was appointed prime-minister. The fruits of Richelieu's foreign policy were rapidly gathered by the two renowned generals,—Condé and Turenne,—who now commanded the French armies. The battles of *Rocroi*,¹ *Freiburg*, *Nordlingen*, and *Lens* humiliated Austria, and paved the way to the Peace of Westphalia. Spain, however, continued

¹ The pupil may be aided in remembering these important battles if he associate the four names with Condé and Turenne (though Turenne fought only at Freiburg and Nordlingen): the names frequently repeated together will form a chain of association. The same remark holds true with regard to Luxemburg's three battles (p. 186), and Marlborough's four battles (p. 187). On the field of Rocroi the French found the remains of the Castilian infantry, first formed by Gonsalvo (p. 125), lying dead in battle-line, and at the head the commander, Comte de Fuentes, hero of twenty battles, expiring in an arm-chair in which, on account of his feebleness, he had been borne to the front. "Were I not victor," said the young Duke d'Enghein (Condé), "I should wish thus to die."

the war¹ until, by the *Peace of the Pyrenees* (1659), she yielded Artois and Roussillon to Louis. From this time, France held that place among European nations which Spain had so long occupied. Upon the death of Mazarin (1661),

Louis assumed the Government. Henceforth, for over half a century, he was sole master in France. He became his own prime-minister, and, though only twenty-three years old, by his diligence soon acquired the details of public affairs. He selected his assistants with rare wisdom. Colbert, the new finance minister, was another Sully, by economy and system increasing the revenues, while he encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Louvois, the war minister, organized and equipped the army, making it the terror of Europe. Never had France been so powerful. One hundred fortresses, monuments of the skill of Vauban,—the greatest engineer of his day,—covered the frontier; one



COLBERT.

¹ The cost of this war and the luxury of the court made the taxes very onerous. Finally Parliament refused to register the tariff, and a revolt broke out in which the Parisian burghers and many nobles joined. This rising is known as the *Fronde*, and the actors were called *Frondeurs* (slingers),—since the gamins of Paris, with their slings, were foremost in the outbreak. The struggle was a burlesque on civil war. Fun ran rampant. Everything was a Fronde; and a sling, the universal fashion. The leaders on each side were the most fascinating women of France. In the end the Fronde was subdued. It was the last struggle of the nobles against despotism.

hundred ships of the line lay in the magnificent harbors of Toulon, Brest, and Havre; and an army of one hundred and forty thousand men, under Turenne, Condé, and Luxemburg, was ready to take the field at the word. The French people, weary of strife, willingly surrendered their political rights to this autocrat, who secured to them prosperity at home and dignity abroad.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.—By the advice of the cold and selfish Louvois and of Madame de Maintenon,—whom the king married after the death of Maria Theresa,—the Edict of Nantes (p. 148) was revoked (1685). The Protestant schools were closed, the Huguenot ministers expelled, and squadrons of cavalry quartered upon the suspected. Many citizens were imprisoned, executed, or sent to the galleys. Although emigration was forbidden under severe penalties, two hundred thousand of the best artisans escaped to foreign lands, whither they carried arts and industries hitherto known only to France.

Four Great Wars were waged by Louis to gratify his ambition, and extend the power of France. These were:

1. *War of Flanders* (1667–68); ended by Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
2. *War with Holland*, and First Coalition (1672–79); closed by Treaty of Nimeguen.
3. *War of the Palatinate*; Second Coalition (1688–97); concluded by Peace of Ryswick.
4. *War of the Spanish Succession* (1701–14); terminated by treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt.

1. *War of Flanders.*—On the death of his father-in-law, Philip IV. of Spain, Louis, in the name of Maria Theresa, invaded Flanders. But in the midst of a triumphant progress he was checked by the “*Triple Alliance*” of England, Holland, and Sweden, and forced to make the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, giving up most of his conquests.

2. *War with Holland.*—Louis was eager to revenge himself upon the little republic that had so long been the ally of France, but now defended its old oppressor, Spain. So, having bribed England and Sweden to desert the alliance, he poured his troops into Holland. With him were Condé, Turenne, Luxemburg, Louvois, and Vauban. Armed with the bayonet, then a new and terrible weapon, they swept all before them until within sight of Amsterdam. But once again the courage of the Dutch rose high, as in the days of the Sea Beggars.¹ “Better,” said they, “let



TURENNE.

the sea drown our farms than the French destroy our liberties.” The sluices were opened, and the German Ocean, rushing in, saved the capital. William, Prince of Orange,² chosen stadtholder in this emergency, aroused all Europe with dread of Louis’s ambition. Soon the *First Coalition* of the empire, Spain, and Brandenburg (now Prussia) was formed against France. Louis, however, made head against all these foes, until, Europe longing for peace, he granted the *Treaty of*

¹ The Dutch even proposed, in case of reverse, to embark on their fleet, like the Athenians (Anc. Peo., p. 132), to abandon their country to this modern Xerxes, sail to their East Indian possessions, and found a new republic beyond the sea.

² The great-grandson of the Liberator of the Netherlands (p. 140), and afterward William III. of England (p. 205).

Nimeguen. This gave Franche Comté, and several fortresses and towns in Flanders, to France. Louis now considered himself the arbiter of Europe. He seized Strasburg in a time of profound peace; captured the fortress of Luxemburg; bombarded Algiers; humiliated Genoa, forcing the Doge to come to Paris and beg for mercy; wrested Avignon from the Pope; and, basest of all, secretly encouraged the Turks to invade Austria.¹

3. *The War of the Second Coalition*² was begun by its most memorable event,—the cruel devastation of the Palatinate. Here the French army, unable to hold its conquests, destroyed over forty cities and villages. Houses were blown up; vineyards and orchards cut down. Palaces, churches, and universities shared a common fate. Even the cemeteries were profaned, and the ashes of the dead scattered to the wind. A cry of execration went up from the civilized world. William, Prince of Orange, then King of England (p. 205), became the leader of the “Grand Alliance,” to set bounds to Louis’s power.

At first Louis was triumphant. Luxemburg³—the successor of Turenne and Condé—conquered the allies under William, at *Fleurus*, *Steinkirk*, and *Neerwinden*. But William was greatest in defeat, and his stubborn valor held the French in check. Ere long, misfortunes gathered thickly about the Grand Monarch. Colbert, Louvois, and Luxemburg died. Louis was finally forced to sign the *Treaty of*

¹ Vienna would have fallen into the hands of the Infidel if it had not been for John Sobieski, King of Poland, who routed the Turks under the walls of the city as Charles the Hammer put to flight the Saracen on the plains of Tours nearly ten centuries before.

² This war extended to North America, and is known in our history as King William’s War (Hist. U. S., p. 77).

³ Luxemburg was styled the Upholsterer of Notre Dame, from the number of captured flags he sent to be hung as trophies in that cathedral. “Would to God,” said he on his death-bed, “that I could offer Him, instead of so many useless laurels, the merit of a cup of water given to the poor in His name.”

Ryswick, recognizing William as lawful sovereign of England, and surrendering most of his conquests, but retaining Strasburg, which Vauban's art had made the key of the Rhine.

4. *The War of the Spanish Succession*¹ began the 18th century. Charles II. of Spain willed his crown to Philip of Anjou, son of the Dauphin; Louis supported his grandson's claim. The emperor Leopold² was as nearly related to the Spanish family as was Louis: so he asserted the right of his second son, the Archduke Charles. The union of France and Spain under the House of Bourbon endangering the balance of power, a *Third Coalition* was formed. William, the soul of this league also, died at the beginning of the war. But his place in the field was more than filled by the brilliant Duke of Marlborough, and by Prince Eugene, who commanded the imperial forces.³ Marlborough won the famous victories of *Blenheim*, *Ramillies*, *Oudenarde*, and *Malplaquet*; Eugene drove the French headlong out of Italy, and threatened France. The long wars had exhausted the people; famine and disease ran riot through the land; and Louis humiliated himself in vain, begging the allies for peace.

In the midst of disaster, however, he achieved his end by two unlooked-for events. The archduke became emperor, and the allies were as unwilling that Spain should be united to Austria as to France; in England the Tories came into power, and recalled the dreaded Marlborough. The terrible struggle was ended by the treaties of *Utrecht* and *Rastadt*. Philip was acknowledged King of Spain; the Spanish posses-

¹ This struggle also involved the American colonies, and is known in our history as Queen Anne's War (Hist. U. S., p. 79).

² Known in history as the "Little man with the red stockings."

³ Eugene was bred in France, and offered his sword to Louis, but was contemptuously rejected. Having called the Grand Monarch "a stage-king for show and a chess-king for use," he had grievously offended the king, and now, having entered the emperor's service, he became the bitterest enemy of France.

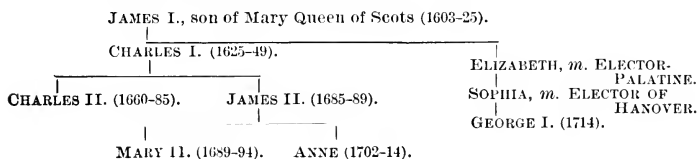
sions in Italy and in the Netherlands were ceded to the emperor Charles VI.; Newfoundland, Acadia, and Gibraltar—the key of the Mediterranean—were given to England.

Death of Louis.—The Grand Monarch had carried out his plan, but he had impoverished France, mortgaged her revenues for years in advance, and destroyed her industries. Worn and disappointed, he closed his long reign of seventy-two years, having outlived his good fortune, and sacrificed his country to his false ideas of glory.

III. ENGLAND UNDER THE STUARTS (1603–1714).

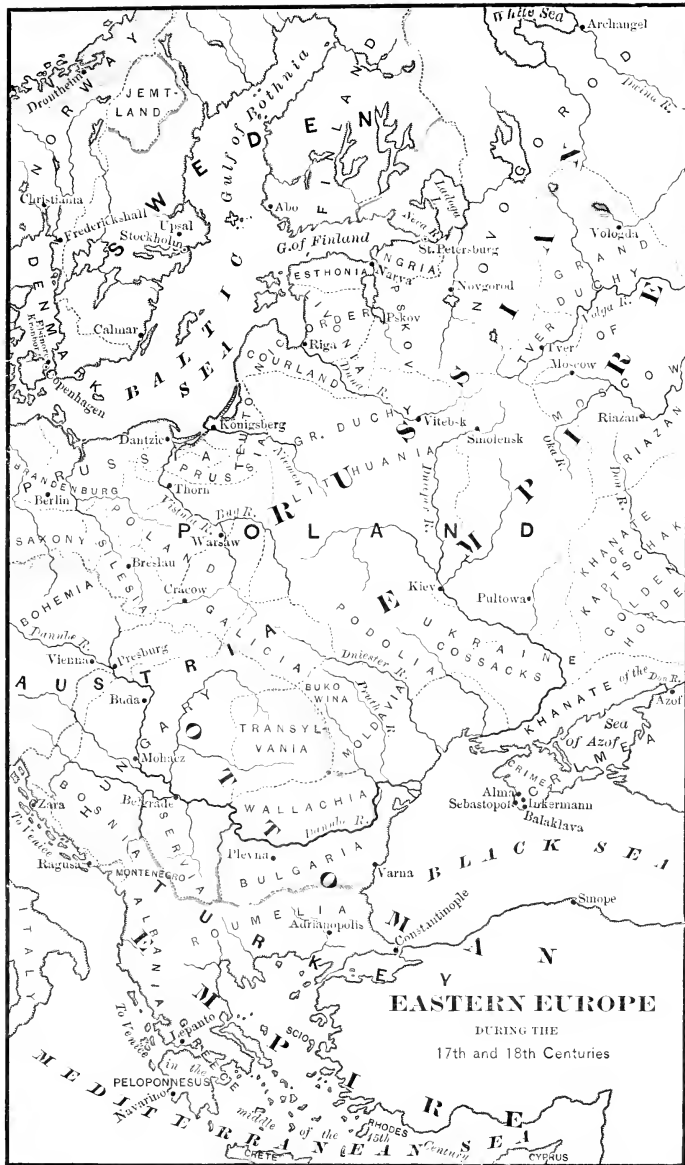
The Stuart Rule covered the 17th century. It was the era of the English constitutional struggle. The characteristic feature was the conflict between the kings bent upon absolute power, and the Parliament contending for the rights of the people.

TABLE OF THE STUART LINE (see Tudor Table, p. 149).



James I. (1603–25).—Obstinate, conceited, pedantic, weak, mean-looking in person, ungainly in manners, slovenly in dress, led by unworthy favorites, given to wine, and so timorous as to shudder at a drawn sword,—the first Stuart king had few qualities of a ruler.¹ In strange contrast with

¹ Macaulay says that "James was made up of two men,—a witty, well-read scholar, who wrote, disputed, and harangued; and a nervous, driveling idiot, who acted." Sully styled him "The wisest fool in Europe." He was the author of several books, notably of one against the use of tobacco; and under his patronage the still generally accepted translation of the Bible was made.



EASTERN EUROPE

DURING THE

17th and 18th Centuries

his undignified appearance, were his royal pretensions. He believed in the "divine right" of the king, and in the "passive obedience" of the subject. While the Tudors had the tact to become absolute by making themselves the exponents of the national will, James ostentatiously opposed his personal policy to the popular desire.



GUY FAWKES AND HIS COMPANIONS.

(From a Print of the Time.)

Gunpowder Plot.—The Catholics naturally expected toleration from Mary's son, but, being persecuted more bitterly than ever, a few desperate ones resolved to blow up Parliament on the day of its opening by the king (1605). They accordingly hired a cellar under the Houses of Parliament, where they hid thirty-six barrels of gunpowder beneath fagots of firewood. At the last moment a conspirator sent a note to a relation, warning him to keep away from Parliament. The letter was shown to the king, search made, and Guy Fawkes found waiting with lantern and slow-match to

fire the train. This horrible plot bore bitter fruit, and stringent laws were passed against the "recusants," *i. e.*, those who refused to attend church.

Parliament and the King were in conflict throughout this reign; the former contending for more liberty, the latter for more power. James would have gladly done without Parliament altogether, but he had constantly to go begging for money to the House of Commons; and that body adopted the principle, now one of the corner-stones of the British constitution, that "a redress of grievances must precede a granting of supplies." Resolved not to yield, the king dissolved Parliament after Parliament, and sought to raise a revenue by reviving various feudal customs. He extorted benevolences, sold titles of nobility, and increased monopolies, until the entire trade of the country was in the hands of about two hundred persons. But these makeshifts availed him little, and step by step Parliament gained ground. Before the end of his reign it had suppressed the odious monopolies, reformed the law-courts, removed obnoxious royal favorites, impeached at its bar the highest officers of the Crown, made good its claim to exclusive control of taxation, and asserted its right to discuss any question pertaining to the welfare of the realm.

James's Foreign Policy was, if possible, more unpopular in England than his domestic. He undid the work of Elizabeth, and wasted the fruit of her triumph over the Armada; cultivated the friendship of Spain; and, during the Thirty-Years' War, refused any efficient aid to his son-in-law, the Elector Palatine, though the nation clamored to join in the struggle. England now ceased to be the leading Protestant power in Europe.

Charles I. (1625-49), unlike his father James, was refined in taste and dignified in manner, but his ideas of the



CHARLES I. AND HIS ARMOR-BEARER.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck.)

royal prerogative were even more exalted. He made promises only to break them, and the nation soon learned to doubt the royal word. His wife, Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, favored absolutism after the French model, and hated the Puritans, who also distrusted her as a Catholic. Buck-

ingham, who had been James's favorite, was the king's chief adviser. Wife and favorite both urged Charles on in the fatal course to which his own inclinations tended. The history of his reign is that of one long

Struggle between Parliament and King.—The Parliament of 1628 wrested from Charles the famous Petition of Right, —the second great charter of English liberty. It forbade the king to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament, to imprison a subject without trial, or to billet soldiers in private houses. Charles, however, as usual, disregarded his promise, and then for eleven years ruled like an autocrat.

During this period no Parliament was convoked,—an instance unparalleled in English history. Buckingham having been assassinated by a Puritan fanatic, the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud became the royal advisers. The

former contrived a cruel plan known as "Thorough," by which he meant to make the king absolute. In Ireland, where the scheme was tried, Irish and English alike crouched in terror under his iron rule. Laud was resolved to crush the Puritans, and restore to the Church many of its ancient usages. All who differed from him were tried in the High Commission Court; while the Star Chamber¹ Court fined, whipped, and imprisoned those speaking ill of the king's policy, or refusing to pay the money he illegally demanded. The Puritans, persecuted on every hand, found their only refuge in the wilds of America, and in a single year three thousand joined their brethren in New England.

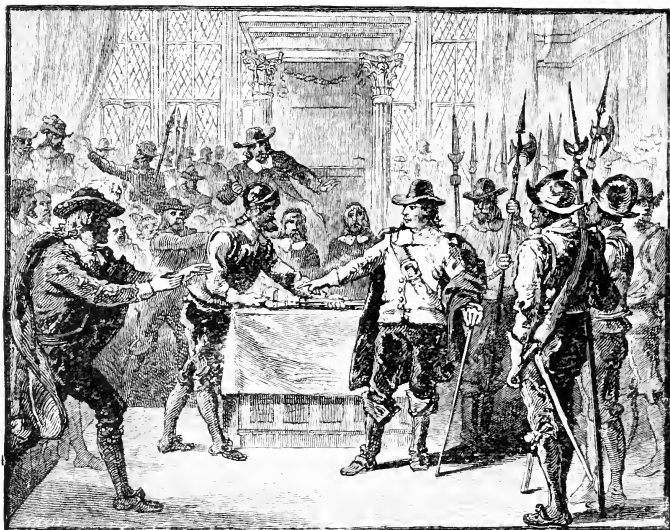
No tax caused more feeling than the imposition of *ship-money* upon inland towns in time of peace. At last the opposition found a voice in John Hampden. He resisted the levy of twenty shillings upon his property, and, though beaten in the royal court, became the people's hero.

In Scotland, also, Charles carried matters with a high hand. Laud attempted to abolish Presbyterianism, and introduce a liturgy. Thereupon the Scotch rose *en masse*, and signed, some of them with their own blood, a covenant binding themselves to resist every innovation on their religious rights. Finally an army of Scots crossed the border, and Charles was forced to assemble the celebrated

"*Long Parliament*" (1640), so called because it lasted twenty years. The old contest was renewed. Strafford, and afterward Laud, were brought to the block; the Star Chamber and High Commission Courts were abolished; and Parliament voted that it could not be adjourned without its own consent. At last Charles, in desperation, rashly at-

¹ This court was so called because it met in a chamber at Westminster whose ceiling was decorated with gilt stars. "A London citizen was severely punished by one of the royal courts for terming the crest of a nobleman upon the buttons of his livery-servant a goose instead of a swan."

tempted, with a body of armed men, to arrest in the House itself five of the patriot leaders, among them Hampden and Pym. They took refuge in the city, whence, seven days later, they were brought back to the House of Commons in triumph, escorted by London train bands, amid the roar of cannon and the shouts of the people.



CROMWELL DISSOLVING THE LONG PARLIAMENT

Civil War (1642–48) was now inevitable. Charles hastened northward and unfurled the royal banner. The Puritans, together with London and the cities generally, supported Parliament; the clergy, the nobles, and the gay young men, who disliked the Puritan strictness, favored the king.¹ Rupert, Charles's nephew, and son of the Winter

¹ The royalists were called *Cavaliers*, from their skill in riding; and the parliamentarians, *Roundheads*, from the Puritan fashion of wearing closely cut hair. In later times the same parties were styled *Tories* and *Whigs*. At the present day the two parties are known as *Conservatives* and *Radicals*.

King (p. 174), was a dashing cavalry-officer, and on field after field swept everything before him. The plow-boys, apprentice-lads, and shop-keepers, who made up the parliamentary army, were no match for the English chivalry.

Marston Moor (1644).—Here a new man came to the front, Oliver Cromwell, who, with his Ironsides,—a regiment of Puritan dragoons selected and trained after his own plan,¹—drove Rupert's cavaliers pell-mell from the field.

The Independents.—The Puritan party had now become strong; but it was divided into Presbyterians and Independents. The Presbyterians, constituting the majority of Parliament, desired religious conformity and to limit the royal authority; the Independents wished religious toleration and to found a republic. Cromwell was the chief of the latter faction, which now took the lead. Under its auspices, the army known as the "New Model" was organized. It was composed of earnest, God-fearing men, who fought, not for pay, but for liberty of conscience. Perfect discipline was combined with enthusiastic religious fervor. Profanity and drunkenness were unknown. Officers and men spent their leisure in prayer and Bible-reading, and went into battle singing psalms and hymns.

At *Naseby* (1645) the New Model fought with the royal forces the decisive contest of the war. The Roundhead left wing yielded to the fury of Rupert's Cavaliers, who pursued the fugitives in hot haste. Meanwhile Cromwell routed the royalist left wing, then turned back, and, attacking in flank the center, where Charles commanded, swept the field. Rupert returned from his mad pursuit, only to find the battle over and the royal cause irrevocably lost.

¹ In the evening after Edgehill, the first battle of this war, Oliver said to his cousin, John Hampden, "It is plain that men of religion are wanted to withstand these gentlemen of honor."

The King's Fate.—Charles fled to the Scots, who gave him up to the Parliament; but the army soon got him into its possession. Negotiations ensued, during which



EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.

the king sought to play off Independents against Presbyterians, until his insincerity became evident to all. The army, then the master, had no faith in the king; and even Cromwell and his son-in-law Ireton, who struggled long to mediate upon the basis of civil and religious liberty, were forced to yield. A body of soldiers under Colonel Pride surrounded the House of Commons, and shut out the Presbyterian members. Thus reduced, by what is known as "Pride's Purge," to about sixty Independents, the House

appointed a commission to try the king on a charge of treason. Condemned to death, Charles met his fate with a dignity that went far to atone for the errors of his life.¹

The Commonwealth (1649–60).—England was now to be governed without king or lords. Authority was vested in the diminished House of Commons, contemptuously styled the “Rump.” The real ruler, however, was Cromwell, who, with his terrible army, silenced all opposition.

In Ireland and Scotland the Prince of Wales was proclaimed as Charles II. Thereupon Cromwell’s merciless Ironsides conquered Ireland as it never had been before; then, crossing into Scotland, they routed the Covenanters at *Dunbar*, and again, on the anniversary of that victory, at *Worcester*.²

War also broke out with Holland for the empire of the sea. The Dutch were at first successful, and Van Tromp sailed up the Channel with a broom tied at his masthead, to show that he meant to sweep the English from the ocean.

1 “He nothing common did or mean
Upon that memorable scene;
But with his keener eye
The ax’s edge did try;
Nor called the gods with vulgar spite
To vindicate his helpless right;
But bow’d his comely head
Down, as upon a bed.”—*Marvell*.

When the executioner lifted the severed head from the block, a groan of pity burst from the horror-stricken multitude. Yet even in the shadow of the scaffold, Charles asserted his continued belief that “a share in government” is “nothing pertaining” to the people.

2 Charles II., as the price of the Scottish support, had signed the Covenant, and declared himself afflicted at the thought of his father’s tyranny and his mother’s idolatry. He had, however, no real hold upon Scotland, and after the battle of Worcester became a fugitive. The story of his escape to the Continent is full of romantic adventures. At one time he took refuge in the spreading branches of an oak-tree whence he could see his enemies scouring the country in pursuit; at another he was disguised as a groom to a lady who rode behind him on a pillion, as was then the custom. Though over forty persons knew his secret, and Parliament had offered a reward of one thousand pounds for his capture, all were faithful to their trust, and the prince finally reached a collier at the seaside, and was carried across to Normandy.

But the British fleet under the gallant Blake finally forced Holland to a treaty agreeing that, when ships of the two nations met, the Dutch vessel should salute by striking its flag.

Cromwell and Parliament.—The Rump did not govern satisfactorily, and so Cromwell with a file of soldiers drove the members from the hall, and put the keys in his pocket (1653). He then called an assembly of his own selection. It was known as "Praise-God Barebone's Parliament," from the quaint name of one of its members. This body soon resigned its power into Cromwell's hands, having given him the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth.

The Protectorate.—Cromwell desired to rule constitutionally by means of a Parliament; but the Houses of Commons which he assembled proved troublesome, and were dissolved. So he governed as a military despot. He had the power of a king, but, like Julius Cæsar, dared not take the title. Under his vigorous administration, the glory of England, dimmed by the policy of the Stuarts, shone even brighter than under Elizabeth. The Barbary pirates were chastised; Jamaica was captured; and Dunkirk was received from France in return for help against Spain. Everywhere protecting the Protestants, Cromwell forced the Duke of Savoy to cease persecuting the Vaudois; and he dreamed of making England the head of a great Protestant league. In spite, however, of his genius and strength, of renown abroad, and prosperity at home,

Cromwell's Last Days were full of gloom. He had kept the hearts of his soldiers, but had broken with almost every other class of his countrymen. The people were weary of Puritan strictness that rebuked their innocent amusements; weary of the rule of a soldier; above all, perhaps, weary of a republic. Factional strife grew hot, and republi-

can and royalist alike plotted against their new tyrant. In constant dread of assassination, Cromwell wore a coat of mail, and, it is said, slept in a different room every night. The death of a favorite daughter greatly afflicted him. He died shortly afterward, in the midst of a fearful tempest, on his "Fortunate Day,"—the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester. His last words were, "My work is done."



MEDAL OF OLIVER CROMWELL.

With him Puritanism seemed to sink out of sight, but its best qualities survived, and bequeathed to England, as well as to our own New England, its earnestness, its fidelity, its firmness, its devotion to the right, and its love of liberty.

The Friends, or Quakers, arose at this time through the teachings of George Fox. He denounced war, asserted the brotherhood of all men, declined to take an oath in court, used the second person singular in addressing others, and refused to uncover his head in any presence. His followers were persecuted, but their zeal, patience, and purity of life gained the admiration even of their enemies. The number of Friends increased rapidly, and, upon the founding of Pennsylvania, many emigrated to the New World.

Richard Cromwell succeeded his father in the protectorate; but he was a good-natured, easy soul, with no idea how to govern, and he soon retired to private life. The army was all-powerful, and it seemed at one time as if the scenes at Rome, when soldiers set up the crown at auction, might be renewed in England. At this juncture General Monk, who commanded in Scotland, marched to London, and, under his protection, the old Long Parliament met, issued writs for a new election, and finally dissolved itself (1660). A new Parliament was assembled, and Charles II. was invited to the throne of his ancestors.¹

The Restoration.—Charles II. (1660–85) was welcomed with a tumult of joy. No conditions were imposed; the year of his accession was styled, not the *first*, but the *twelfth*, of his reign, and the restored Stuart was made as absolute as any Tudor.

The Reaction.—From Puritan austerity, which forbade not only theatrical representations but even Christmas festivities and the dance about the May-pole on the village green, the people now rushed to the opposite extreme of revelry and frivolity. Giddiest of all was the Merry Monarch. King and court alike made light of honor and virtue. In the plays then acted upon the stage, ridicule was poured upon the holiest ties and the most sacred principles.

England was in a very delirium of royalty. The Established Church was restored, and two thousand ministers were expelled from their pulpits as *Nonconformists*. To attend a dissenting place of worship became a crime for which men were whipped, imprisoned, and transported.

¹ The disbanded Puritan army of 50,000 men quietly went back to their shops and fields. Everywhere the gallant soldiers prospered. Not one of them begged for alms or was charged with crime. So it came about that, "if a baker, a mason, a wagoner, attracted attention by his diligence and sobriety, he was, in all probability, one of Oliver's old followers." History knows only one other such event. That was at the close of our own civil war (Hist. U. S., p. 281).

In Scotland the people generally¹ submitted to the new order of things, but along the western lowlands the stern old Covenanters, sword and Bible in hand, continued to meet their former pastors upon lonely moor and mountain, and, though hunted like wild beasts and tortured by thumbscrew and iron-boot, still insisted upon their right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences.

The Plague broke out in London in 1665. The shops were shut, whole blocks stood empty, and grass grew in the streets. Houses in which the pestilence raged were marked with a red cross, and the words, "Lord have mercy upon us." All night long the carts rattled through the streets, with a tolling bell and the burier's dismal cry, "Bring out your dead." No coffins were used; no mourners followed their friends; and deep trenches served for graves. To add to the horror of the scene, a strange, wild-looking man constantly stalked up and down the deserted city, calling out ever and anon in a sepulchral voice, "Oh, the great and dreadful God!" Before the plague was stayed, one hundred thousand persons had perished in the capital alone, and large numbers in other places.

The Great Fire of London broke out in the following year. It raged for three days, and swept from the Tower to the Temple. Two hundred thousand people were driven to the open fields, homeless and destitute.²

¹ The change that had taken place is well shown by a single instance. When Archbishop Laud sought to introduce a liturgy into Scotland, on the occasion of the first reading of prayers in Edinburgh, one Jenny Geddes inaugurated civil war (1637) by hurling a stool at the dean's head. Jenny now cast the contents of her stall and basket into a bonfire in honor of the king's coronation and the subsequent action of Parliament.

² Singularly enough, the fire began in Pudding Lane, near Fish St., and stopped at Pie Corner. It is probable that some association of these names led to an inscription which formerly existed under a very fat, human figure, still to be seen against the wall of a public-house near by: "This boy is in memory put up of the late fire of London occasioned by the sin of gluttony, 1666."

Dutch War.—During these calamitous years, a war was going on with Holland,—England's rival in commerce. Charles squandered on his pleasures the money Parliament voted for the navy, and now the Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, and for the first and last time the roar of foreign guns was heard in London. That "dreadful sound" broke the dream of royalty. Other events, too, were hastening the ruin of Charles's popularity, as well as bringing Protestant England into alliance with Protestant Holland.

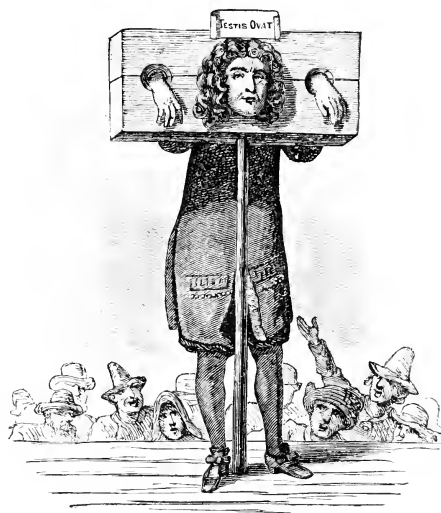
Charles and Louis XIV.—At this time, France, under Louis XIV., had become what Spain was under Philip II., the strongest power in Europe and the champion of absolutism and Catholicism. A dread of France had replaced the old English dislike of Spain. Charles, however, did not share in his subjects' fear. Even when his people forced him to join the Triple Alliance, he was privately negotiating with his cousin Louis, to whom he had already sold Dunkirk,—the Gibraltar of that day,—in order to fill his always empty purse; and, though Parliament was wild to aid William of Orange in his gallant struggle, Charles signed with France the secret *Treaty of Dover* (1670). In this treaty Charles agreed to establish Catholicism in England, and to help Louis in his schemes against Holland; Louis, in turn, promised his cousin an annual pension, and the assistance of the French army should England resist.

Plots.—Some inklings of this treaty had been whispered about, when the English people were driven frantic by news of a so-called "Popish Plot" to massacre the Protestants, and to bring over French troops. One Titus Oates, a renegade Jesuit, pretended to reveal the scheme, and his perjured testimony, amid the heat of the excitement, cost the lives of many innocent Catholics, and led to the passage of the *Test Act*, excluding Catholics from Parliament.

James, Duke of York, the king's brother and heir to the crown, was a Catholic, and personally very unpopular.¹ The Whigs² resolved to shut him out from the throne. They even planned an insurrection, and a few desperate ones formed the *Rye House Plot* to kill the king and his brother. The discovery of

this plot brought unjustly to the block two illustrious men, Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney.³

The Result of these odious plots was to weaken the Whigs, and bring the Tories to the front. Charles was thus able, for the last four years of his reign, to rule without a Parliament, and to push his despotic schemes. He regularly drew his pension from Louis, and helped him as he could, but,



TITUS OATES IN THE PILLORY.
(From a Print of the Time.)

¹ One day he cautioned his brother Charles about going unattended, but received the bitter retort, "They will never kill *me* to make *you* king."

² Whig and Tory were nicknames. Whig (whey) was a favorite drink of the Covenanters, and initialed their motto: "We Hope In God." Tory was a name originally applied to the outlaws of the Irish bogs. Whigs in general favored the rights of the people; Tories supported the court and the royal prerogative.

³ Out of the hot discussions of this period came the famous *Habeas Corpus* (bring the body) *Act*. This law provides that among other rights a prisoner can insist upon being brought "bodily" before a judge to have his detention inquired into. Prior to that, Mary Queen of Scots had been an uncondemned prisoner for nineteen years. Sir Walter Raleigh languished in a dungeon over twelve years.

shrewd and intelligent in spite of his idle and pleasure-loving nature, he never attempted to overthrow the established religion of England.¹

James II. (1685-88) came to the throne without opposition. He soon showed that his chief aim was to restore Catholicism. To accomplish this end, he resorted to illegal measures, and strained the royal prerogative to the utmost. At this time Louis XIV. had just revoked the Edict of Nantes, and the persecuted Huguenots were flocking to England. Yet James ventured to raise a large and threatening standing army, and, in spite of the law of the realm and the protest of his Parliament, to officer it extensively with his Catholic favorites. In vain the Pope counseled moderation, and the Catholic gentry stood aloof. The English people submitted, however, as they knew that the next heir—James's daughter Mary, wife of William of Orange—was Protestant. But the birth of a Prince of Wales² crushed this hope. Thereupon Whigs and Tories united in inviting William to come to the defense of English liberties.

The "Revolution of 1688."—William was welcomed almost as gladly as Charles II. had been twenty-eight years before. James, deserted by all, fled to France. A convention proclaimed William and Mary King and Queen of England. They agreed to a *Bill of Rights* that guaranteed all for which the people had so long contended. Thus the

¹ He even rebuked the zeal of his brother James, and said in his ironical way, "I am too old to go again upon my travels; you may, if you choose." It is strange that Charles, with all his cleverness, did not connect his name with any valuable measure of his reign. Shaftesbury's epigram was but too true:

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

² On the death of James, Louis XIV. recognized this son as the rightful successor (James III.). The Whigs called him the "*Pretender*." In history he is known as the "*Old Pretender*;" and his son, as the "*Young Pretender*" (Charles III.). Charles's brother (Henry IX.) was the last male heir of the Stuart line.

English Revolution, which began with the civil war, terminated after a struggle of eighty-five years. The government was finally fixed as a constitutional monarchy. Nothing was afterward heard of the divine right of kings, of taxation without consent of Parliament, or of Star Chamber courts of justice.

The Deposed King returned to Ireland with supplies furnished by Louis, and the Irish gallantly supported his cause. He besieged Londonderry, but the inhabitants defended themselves over three months. In the extremity of their hunger, they ate rats and mice, and even chewed old shoes and hides, yet never spoke of surrender. At last the English fleet broke through the boom in the river, and the besiegers fled. William finally crossed into Ireland, and ended the war by the *Battle of the Boyne* (1690), where, though wounded, he dashed through the river, and led the charge. James, seeing all was lost, fled. "Change kings with us," said a brave Irish officer, "and we will fight you again." Once more Ireland was conquered, and the native Catholics were ground down under English oppression.

William III. (1689–1702) was weak and sickly from the cradle; his manner was cold, stiff, and unattractive; and, in spite of his genius and nobility of character, he made few friends in England. The death of Mary, whose wifely devotion had sunk her life in his, and whose cheerfulness had brightened his dull court, left him still more silent and abstracted. The entire reign was disturbed by plots of the Jacobites,¹—the friends of James. They took the oath to William and joined his counsels only to reveal his plans to his enemies. William valued his crown chiefly because it strengthened him in carrying out the object of his life,—to

¹ From *Jacobus*, the Latin for James.

break the power of Louis XIV. In order to gain support in his European wars, he yielded power to the House of Commons, which became what it is to-day, the real governing body. While preparing to take the field in the War of the Spanish Succession, he died, leaving the crown to Mary's sister,

Anne (1702-14).—"Good Queen Anne," the last of the Stuarts, was kind-hearted, but of moderate ability, and was ruled by her favorite, the wife of the Duke of Marlborough. William's policy being continued, Marlborough¹ was placed at the head of the army; within five years he achieved four great victories over France (p. 187). There was a constant struggle between the Whigs (the war party) and the Tories (the peace party). The Whigs thought of the future interests of the country; the Tories, of the constantly growing national debt. Finally the Tories gained the ascendancy, Marlborough was recalled, and the Peace of Utrecht ended the long contest with Louis. Anne's health was affected by

¹ The character of Marlborough—the general who stayed the progress of France, and who successively betrayed William III., James II., and Queen Anne—is thus brilliantly portrayed by Thackeray, in his novel *Esmond*: "Our chief, whom England and all Europe, saving only the Frenchmen, worshiped almost, had this of the godlike in him, that he was impassible before victory, before danger, before defeat. He was always cold, calm, resolute, like fate. He performed a treason or a court bow, he told a falsehood as black as Styx, as easily as he paid a compliment or spoke about the weather. Our duke was as calm at the mouth of the cannon as at the door of a drawing-room. Perhaps he could not have been the great man he was, had he had a heart either for love or hatred, or pity or fear, or regret or remorse. . . . He used all men great and small, that came near him, as his instruments alike, and took something of theirs, either quality or some property; the blood of a soldier it might be, or a jeweled hat, or a hundred thousand from a king, or a portion out of a starving sentinel's three-farthings, and having this of the godlike in him, that he could see a hero perish or a sparrow fall with the same amount of sympathy. Not that he had no tears; he could always bring up his reserve at the proper moment to battle; he could draw upon tears and smiles alike, and whenever need was for using this cheap coin. He would cringe to a shoeblack, as he would flatter a minister or a monarch; be haughty, be humble, threaten, repent, weep, grasp your hand, or stab you, whenever he saw occasion. But yet, those of the army who knew him best, and had suffered most from him, admired him most of all; and, as he rode along the lines to battle, or galloped up in the nick of time to a battalion reeling from before the enemy's charge or shot, the fainting men and officers got new courage as they saw the splendid calm of his face, and felt that his will made them irresistible."

the dissensions of her ministers, and she died in 1714, having buried all her thirteen children. The crown then passed, by previous act of Parliament, to the House of Hanover, these being "Protestant Heirs," as the law required.

The chief political event of this reign was the union of Scotland with England as the Kingdom of Great Britain (1707).

THE CIVILIZATION.

Progress of Civilization.—The second century of the modern era was characterized by the development of literature and science, as the first had been by that of commerce and art.

Literature.—*English Literature* still flourished. Shakspeare yet stood at the front, and in the first decade composed his sublime tragedies. Next, Fletcher, Beaumont, and "Rare Ben Jonson" followed their master from afar. Jeremy Taylor wrote "Holy Living and Dying;" Richard Baxter, a famous Puritan author, published his "Saints' Rest;" and the quaint Izaak Walton, his "Compleat Angler." After the Restoration, there were Dryden, prince of satirists; Butler, author of the witty "Hudibras;" and John Locke, whose "Essay on the Human Understanding" remained a text-book in mental philosophy until almost our own day. Milton, who had been secretary of state under Cromwell, now, in blindness and poverty, dictated to his daughter the immortal epic, "Paradise Lost;" while Bunyan, shut up in Bedford Jail for conscience' sake, dreamed out "Pilgrim's Progress,"—a book that has been more read than any other save the Bible.

French Literature now reached its climax. "No other country," says Macaulay, "could produce a tragic poet equal to Racine, a comic poet equal to Molière, a trifler so agreeable as La Fontaine, a rhetorician so skillful as Bossuet." Besides these, who were easily first, there were Pascal, whose "Provincial Letters" created a standard for French prose; Fénelon, whose "Telemachus" still retains its wonderful popularity; Boileau, who has been styled the Horace of France; Madame de Sévigné, whose graceful "Letters" are models of epistolary style; and Massillon, who pronounced over the bier of Louis XIV. a eulogy opening with the sublime words, "God alone is great."

Philosophy now boasted, in England, Bacon, the author of the "Inductive Method," that teaches men to observe the facts of Nature and thus deduce her laws. France possessed Descartes, who, by leading men to reason for themselves rather than to search for authority, performed for metaphysics the same service that Bacon had for natural science.

Holland had Spinoza, whose sublime speculations have influenced many of the profoundest thinkers of the world; though, as Hallam remarks, "he did not essentially differ from the Pantheists of old." Germany contained the fourth great leader, Leibnitz, in whose encyclopedic mind philosophy, medicine, theology, jurisprudence, diplomacy, and mathematics were all arranged in orderly sequence. He developed the theory of optimism,—that, of the possible plans of creation, God had adopted the one which economized time, space, and matter.



PORTRAITS OF DRYDEN, MILTON, AND BUNYAN.

Science made rapid strides throughout this entire century. Galileo invented the telescope, and was the first to see Jupiter's moons. The year that Galileo died, Newton was born (1642). He wrote the "Principia," explained the theory of colors, and discovered the law of gravitation; yet this wonderful man was so modest that a short time before his death he declared, "I seem to myself to have been only a boy playing on the seashore, . . . while the great ocean of truth lies undiscovered before me." Every branch of science felt the inspiration of the new method. Torricelli of Florence invented the barometer; and Guericke of Magdeburg, the air-pump. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood (1619). Napier, by means of logarithms, shortened mathematical operations. Huyghens applied the pendulum to the clock. Pascal found that the air has weight. Kepler worked out his three famous laws of planetary motion. Horrox observed a transit of Venus. Roemer measured the velocity of light. Halley foretold the return of a comet. Louis XIV. established the French Academy of Sciences; and Charles II., the English Royal Society. Science became

the fashionable thing under the later Stuarts. There was a royal laboratory in the palace at Whitehall, and even the court ladies prated of magnets and microscopes.

Art.—The Netherlands now excelled in art, the Flemish and Dutch schools possessing that wonderful trio,—Rubens, Van Dyck, and Rembrandt. Velasquez and Murillo were the great Spanish painters. Italy presented nothing better than Salvator Rosa. England had a famous architect,—Sir Christopher Wren,—who planned St. Paul's Cathedral and fifty churches destroyed in the Great Fire in London; but her native painters were of little ability, and the famous portrait of Charles I. was by Van Dyck, the Flemish artist, as in the previous century those of the Tudors were by Holbein, a German.

LOUIS XIV. AND HIS COURT.

The “Grand Monarch” had extravagant ideas of the royal prerogative, and claimed absolute right over the life and property of every subject. His favorite motto was, “I am the state.” Vain, imperious, self-asserting, with large, handsome features, a fine figure, and a majestic manner,¹ he made himself the model for artists, the theme for poets, the one bright sun whose rays all other bodies



SIGNATURE OF LOUIS XIV.

were to reflect. It was only by the grossest flattery and by ascribing every success to him that his ministers retained their places; and the slightest affront by any government was the signal to set in motion his mighty fleet and army. The absurd adulation poured into the ear of the English queen a century before was repeated in the fulsome flattery at Versailles, and found as welcome reception. “That which amazeth me is that after all these years I do behold you the self-same queen, in person, strength, and beauty; insomuch that I am persuaded that time, which catcheth everybody else, leaves only you untouched,” unblushingly affirmed even the prosaic Cecil, when Elizabeth was faded, wrinkled, and nearing her seventieth year. “Ah, Sire, the rain of

¹ “He walked,” says White, “with the tramp of dignity, rolling his eyes and turning out his toes, while the courtiers burst into loud applause. The red heels of his shoes, four inches high, added much to his stature, but yet did not bring him up to the standard of ordinary men. In imitation of their royal master, all gentlemen tied themselves in at the waist, stuck out their elbows, and walked with a strut. They also wore immense wigs covered with flour, flowing over their shoulders, and silver-buckled shoes that came nearly up to the ankle. A hat it was impossible for a conjurer to balance on the top of the enormous periwig, so they carried the three-cornered cockaded superfluity under the arms or in their hands. Rich velvet coats with amazingly wide skirts, brocaded waistcoats halfway to the knee, satin small-clothes and silk stockings, composed their apparel, which received its crowning adornment in gold-headed cane and diamond-hilted sword.”

Marly does not wet," protested the dripping Cardinal de Polignae, when caught in a shower at the exclusive "rural retreat," fitted up by Louis and Madame de Maintenon in the king's old age.



COURT OF LOUIS XIV.

The Court Etiquette was inflexible, from the morning presentation (at the end of a long cane and through the parting of the undrawn bed-curtains) of the royal wig, without which his Majesty was never seen, down to the formal tucking-in of the royal couch at night. Above all,

everywhere and always, it was **THE KING** who was the etiquette, art, and fashion of the day. His courtiers prostrated themselves at his feet like oriental slaves. To accompany him in his walks, to carry his cane or sword, to hold a taper during his toilet, to draw on his shoes, or even to stand and watch his robing, were honors to live and die for. Never sated with the most servile flattery, he complacently inhaled the incense due to a demi-god.

The Palace at Versailles, built at an expense of over eighty million dollars, was the creation of the king, and is a symbol of his own character. Vast, ambitious, but coldly monotonous in effect; magnificent in decoration; recklessly extravagant in the means by which its end was attained, and seeking to condense the brilliancy of the entire kingdom in itself,—it was the Mecca of every courtier. Stone and marble here became an endless series of compliment and homage to the royal person, and the acres of elaborate ceiling painted by Lebrun are a continued apotheosis, casting all Olympus at the royal feet.

The Garden, with its long straight avenues bordered by alternating trees and statues; its colossal fountains, where bronze or marble nymphs and tritons play with water brought at immense cost from afar; its grand cross-shaped canal; its terraces and orangeries; and its flower-beds, arranged with stately regularity,—seem all an indefinite prolongation of an endless palace.

A Brilliant Court peopled this magnificent abode. Poorly educated himself,—being scarcely able to read or write, much less to spell,—Louis was munificent in his rewards to men of genius, while he appropriated their glory as his own. A throng of philosophers, statesmen, writers, scientists, poets, and painters clustered about the throne; and French thought, tastes, and language were so impressed upon foreign nations that all Europe took on a Parisian tinge. Here, too, were women of unusual wit and beauty, whose power was felt in every public act. Social deference and gallantry—led by the king, who, it is said, never passed a woman, even a chambermaid, without lifting his hat—gave them the political rights denied by law. They were the head and soul of all the endless intrigues of the time. Again, as in the days of chivalry, a woman's smile was the most coveted reward of valor; and political schemes were wrought out, not in the cabinet of a statesman, but in the salon of a lady. Conversation in this brilliant circle was made an art. "We argue and talk, night and day, morning and evening, without object, without end," wrote Madame de Sévigné, herself one of the most distinguished wits of the day. Letter-writing became a passion, and the graceful epistles of this century are a fit sequel to the spicy memoirs of the preceding one.

By common consent, the latter part of the 17th century is known in history as the age of Louis XIV.

SUMMARY.

The 17th was the century of Richelieu, Gustavus Adolphus, Louis XIV., Cromwell, the Stuarts, Milton, Corneille, Bacon, Newton, Galileo, Rubens, Rembrandt, and Murillo. It saw the assassination of Henry IV.; the Thirty-Years' War; the victories of Turenne and Condé; the Treaty of Westphalia; the long struggle between Louis XIV. and William of Orange; three great wars of the age of Louis XIV.; the revocation of the *Edict of Nantes*; the rise of Puritanism; the battles of Marston Moor and Naseby; the execution of Charles I.; the glories of the Protectorate; the restoration of the Stuarts; and the Revolution of 1688.

READING REFERENCES.

General Modern Histories named on p. 123, and the Special Histories of England, France, Germany, etc., on p. 112.—Macaulay's *History of England* (Chapter III., for *Picture of Life in the Seventeenth Century*).—Schiller's *History of the Thirty-Years' War*.—Gardiner's *Thirty-Years' War*; and the *Puritan Revolution*; Hale's *Fall of the Stuarts* (*Epochs of History Series*).—Voltaire's *Age of Louis XIV.*—Bancroft's *History of the United States* (chapters relating to English statesmen and their views).—Taine's *Ancient Régime*.—Browning's *Great Rebellion* (*Hand-book of History Series*).—Haussier's *Period of the Reformation* (*Thirty-Years' War*).—Trench's *Lectures on Gustavus Adolphus*.—Cordery and Phillpott's *King and Commonwealth*.—Motley's *John of Barneveld* (Sully and Henry IV.).—Robson's *Life of Richelieu*.—Bulwer Lytton's *Richelieu* (drama).—James's *Memoirs of Great Commanders* (Condé and Turenne).—James's *Life of Louis XIV.*—Clement's *Life of Colbert*.—Mackay's *Popular Delusions*, art. *The Mississippi Scheme, South Sea Bubble, etc.*—Stephen's *Lectures on French History*.—Pardoe's *Louis XIV.*—Challice's *Memoirs of French Palaces*.—James's *Heidelberg*; *Richelieu* (fiction).—Rambaud's *History of Russia from the Earliest Times*.—Dunham's *Histories of Poland; Spain and Portugal*; and *Denmark, Sweden, and Norway*.—Walpole's *Short History of the Kingdom of Ireland*.

CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.		A. D.
Union of English and Scottish crowns under James I	1603	Battle of Marston Moor.....	1644
Henry IV. assassinated.....	1610	Battle of Naseby	1645
Thirty-Years' War	1618-48	Peace of Westphalia	1648
Age of Richelieu	1622-42	Charles I. beheaded.....	1649
Siege of Rochelle.....	1628	Battles of Dunbar and Worcester..	1650-51
Gustavus Adolphus lands in Pomerania.....	1630	Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector..	1653-58
Siege of Magdeburg	1631	Great Fire in London.....	1666
Battle of Leipsic.....	1631	Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.....	1668
Battle of Lützen, death of Gustavus	1632	Peace of Nimwegen.....	1678
Long Parliament meets.....	1640	Habeas Corpus Act passed	1679
Battles of Rocroi, Freiburg, Nordlingen, and Lens	1643-48	Peter the Great.....	1682-1725
Louis XIV.....	1643-1715	Edict of Nantes revoked.....	1685
		William and Mary crowned.....	1689
		Treaty of Ryswick	1697
		Charles XII., King of Sweden.....	1697

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
James I 1603	Henry IV 1589	Rudolph 1576	Philip III 1598
Charles I 1625	Louis XIII 1610	Matthias 1612	Philip IV 1621
Commonwealth 1649	Louis XIV 1643	Ferdinand II.. 1619	
Charles II 1660		Ferdinand III. 1637	
James II 1685		Leopold I 1658	
William and Mary 1689			Charles II 1665



THE PALACE OF THE LUXEMBURG.

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

I. PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA, AND CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

Russia was founded in the 9th century by the Norseman, Ruric. Christianity (Greek, p. 15) was introduced by his son's wife, Olga. This Slavic land, repeatedly overrun by Mongol hordes (p. 99), was finally conquered by Oktai. For over two centuries the House of Ruric paid tribute to the Khan of the Golden Horde. *Ivan the Great* (1462–1505) threw off this Tartar yoke, and subdued Novgorod; while *Ivan the Terrible* (who first took the title of Czar, 1533–84) conquered Kazan, Astrakhan, and Siberia. *Feodor*, Ivan's son, was the last of the Ruric line (1598). After years of civil war, the crown fell (1613) to Michael Romanoff, ancestor of the present czar. Russia was now a powerful but barbarous empire, having only one seaport, Archangel, and without manufactures or a navy. Shut off by the Swedes from the Baltic and by the Turks from the Black Sea, it had little intercourse with the rest of Europe until the time of

Peter the Great.—From the age of ten, when he became joint king with his demented half-brother, this youthful czar was plotted against by his unscrupulous step-sister,

Geographical Questions.—Locate Azof; Copenhagen; Moscow; Pultowa; Frederickshall; Warsaw; Dettingen; Fontenoy; Raucoux; Lawfelt; Lowositz; Kolin; Rossbach; Leuthen; Zorndorf; Kunersdorf; Torgau; Leignitz; Hubertsburg; Potsdam; Berlin.

Point out Brandenburg; Livonia; Finland; Electorate of Saxony; Silesia; Ingria.

Locate Valmy; Jemmapes; Neerwinden; Lyons; Nice; Lodi; Parma; Pavia; Castiglione; Bassano; Arcole; Mantua; Mont Cenis; Simplon Pass; Marengo; Vienna; Hohenlinden; Ulm; Jena; Austerlitz; Eylau; Friedland; Tilsit; Talavera; Torres Vedras; Saragossa; Salamanca; Vittoria; Madrid; Wagram; Dresden; Borodino; Moscow; Leipsic; Ligny; Waterloo.

the regent Sophia. When seventeen years old, he grasped the scepter for himself (1689).¹ At once he began to civilize and elevate his savage subjects. Having organized some troops after the European manner and built a small flotilla, he sailed down the Don and captured Azof, the key of the Euxine, and Russia's first seaport on the south. He next



PORTRAIT OF IVAN THE TERRIBLE.

resolved to visit foreign countries and learn the secret of their progress.

Peter in Western Europe.—Leaving the government in the hands of an old noble, he accordingly went to Amster-

¹ The year of the devastation of the Palatinate by Louis XIV.; also that in which England secured a constitutional government under William III.



PETER THE GREAT STUDYING SHIP-BUILDING.

dam, where he hired as a laborer in a ship-yard. Under the name of Peter Zimmermann, he plied his adze, earned his regular wages, lived in two rooms and a garret, mended his clothes, and cooked his own food. Meanwhile, besides learning how to build a ship, he studied the manufactures and institutions of this famous Dutch city, where he picked up blacksmithing, enough of cobbling to make a pair of slippers, and of surgery to bleed and to pull teeth. Then, crossing to England, he was heartily received by William III., and presented with a fine yacht, which he soon learned to manage with the



best of the sailors. On his return to Russia, Peter began his

Great Reforms.—He commanded his subjects to give up their long beards and flowing Asiatic robes. He lessened the power of the nobles. He encouraged the women of rank to come out of their oriental seclusion and mingle in society. He granted religious toleration and circulated the Bible. He introduced arithmetic into the government offices, where accounts had previously been kept by a system of balls threaded on wire. He set up printing-presses; founded schools, hospitals, and paper factories; built a fleet, and organized an army. In order to gain a port on the Baltic, he leagued with Denmark and Poland to dismember Sweden.

Charles XII., the “Madman of the North,” then King of Sweden, though but eighteen years old, was boyish only in age, while the Swedish army retained the discipline that under Gustavus had won the fields of Leipsic and Lützen. Undismayed by his triple foes, Charles swiftly marched to attack Copenhagen, and in two weeks brought Denmark to his feet; next, advancing with only nine thousand men against the sixty thousand Russians who were besieging Narva, he defeated them with great slaughter; then, invading Poland, he deposed its monarch, Augustus the Strong (1704),¹ and, pursuing him into his Saxon electorate, forced him to sue for peace. Charles was now at the pinnacle of his glory. England and France sought his alliance, and the conqueror of Blenheim visited his court.

Peter, when he learned of the defeat at Narva, coolly said,

¹ “It is impossible to avoid comparing the occupations and amusements of the three strong men of this time,—Charles, riding horses to death, and beheading sheep and bullocks in order to practice with his sword; Augustus the Strong, straightening horseshoes and rolling up silver plates with one hand; and Peter, hammering out iron bars, filling fire-works, and building ships.” Read Schuyler’s “Peter the Great,” Scribner’s Monthly, Vol. 21; and “The Romanoffs,” Harper’s Monthly, Vol. 67.

“These Swedes, I knew, would beat us for a time, but they will soon teach us how to beat them.” He now strained every nerve to strengthen his forces while Charles was triumphing in Poland. He disciplined his soldiers, and even melted the bells of Moscow, to cast cannon. He captured Narva, the scene of his first misfortune; pushed the Swedes back from the banks of the Neva; and there, amid its marshes, founded a great commercial city,—St. Petersburg. Three hundred thousand peasants were set at work upon the new capital, and within a year it rose to importance.

Charles's Overthrow.—Rejecting every offer of peace, Charles, like a greater warrior a century later (p. 262), dreamed of dictating a treaty under the walls of Moscow, and rashly invaded Russia. Peter's skirmishers hung on the flanks of the Swedish army, destroying the roads and laying waste the country. Still Charles pressed on, during a winter so severe that two thousand men once froze to death almost in his presence. At *Pultowa* Peter gave him battle (1709). Though wounded, Charles was borne to the field in a litter. When that was shattered by a cannon-ball, his gallant soldiers carried him about upon their pikes. But the Swedes had at last taught the Russians how to conquer. Charles was overpowered, and escaped into Turkey with only three hundred men.

There he staid nearly five years, while his kingdom, deprived of its head, went to ruin. The Turks at first espoused his cause, but, irritated by his pride and obstinacy, finally resolved to expel their unwelcome guest. The heroic madman armed his servants, barricaded his house, and with his own sword slew twenty of his assailants before he submitted.

When at last he returned home, he found Sweden shorn of its conquests and exhausted by war. But, carried away

by an insane love of glory, he invaded Norway in the depth of winter. Europe watched with amazement the course of the infatuated monarch. Suddenly news came that he had been shot in the trenches at Frederickshall (1718).¹

Peter's Latter Years were full of patriotic labors. As the result of his Swedish war, he gained Ingria, Livonia, and a part of Finland, thus affording Russia a broad front upon the Baltic. By a war with Persia he won land upon the Caspian Sea. Still his work of civilization went bravely on. A grateful people bestowed upon him the titles of the Great, and the Father of his Country. His last act was one of mercy. While wading out to rescue some shipwrecked sailors, he caught a fever of which he died. He expired in the arms of his wife Catharine,² who succeeded him to the crown of all the Russias (1725).

Further Additions of territory were made by Catharine (II.) the Great, who conquered the Crimea, and thus gained control of the Black Sea. She also, in conjunction with Austria and Prussia, dismembered Poland. The Poles, under Poniatowski and Kosciusko (Hist. U. S., p. 122), took an heroic stand in defense of their liberties. But the valor of these brave patriots, armed with scythes, hatchets, and hammers,

1 "On what foundation stands the warrior's pride,
How just his hopes, let Swedish Charles decide:
A frame of adamant, a soul of fire,
No dangers fright him, and no labors tire.

Peace courts his hand, but spreads her charms in vain;
'Think nothing gained,' he cries, 'till naught remain.'

His fate was destined to a barren strand,
A petty fortress and a dubious hand;
He left a name at which the world grew pale,
To point a moral or adorn a tale."

Johnson's Vanity of Human Wishes.

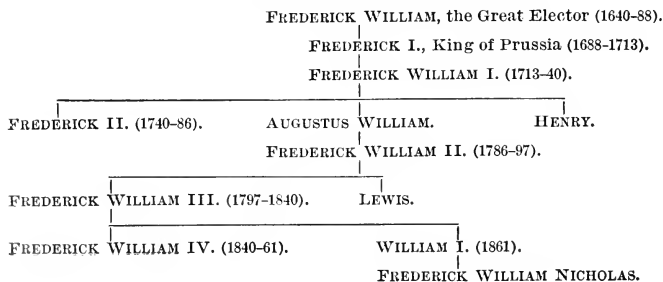
² She was an orphan peasant girl, who fascinated Peter by her beauty. Though she could neither read nor write, yet her merry humor, quick intelligence, and kind heart held the love of this "barbarian tyrant," and soothed him in his terrible fits of stormy rage and hate.

served only to increase the horror of their country's ruin. In his intrenched camp before Warsaw, Kosciusko for a time held his swarming foes at bay; but overpowered at last, bleeding and a captive, he exclaimed, "This is the end of Poland." Prophetic words! The next year Poland was finally "partitioned" between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, Russia receiving of the robbers' spoils 181,000 square miles. It was the greatest crime of the 18th century. But this vast addition of territory brought Russia into the center of Europe, and gave her an interest in all its affairs.

II. RISE OF PRUSSIA IN THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

Brandenburg (p. 80), to which the Duchy of Prussia had been added, made little figure in history until the time of Frederick William, the Great Elector (1640-88). A rapid, clear-eyed man, he dexterously used his compact, well-disciplined little army, amid the complications of that eventful period, so as to conserve the Brandenburg interests. He encouraged trade, made roads, and welcomed the Huguenots whom Louis XIV. drove from France. In the first year of the 18th century his son Frederick received from Leopold I., in return for furnishing the emperor troops during the War of the Spanish Succession, the title of King of Prussia.

HOUSE OF BRANDENBURG IN PRUSSIA.



Frederick William I. (1713–40), whom Carlyle calls the “Great Prussian Drill Sergeant,” practiced the most rigid economy in order to increase his army. He permitted only one extravagance,—a whim for giants. A tall man he would bribe, kidnap, or force into his body-guard, at any cost.¹ He left a well-filled treasury, and eighty-four thousand soldiers to his son,

Frederick (II.) the Great (1740–86).²—The young prince had seemed to be more a poet and philosopher than a “born king,” but he now revealed himself as a military despot, counseling with no one, confiding in no one, and having but one object, the aggrandizement of Prussia.

War of the Austrian Succession (1741–48).—The same year Frederick came to the throne, the emperor Charles VI. died, leaving his daughter Maria Theresa mistress of the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria—Hungary, Bohemia, Austria, etc. By a law known as the Pragmatic Sanction, the great powers of Europe had guaranteed her succession, but now all except England joined to rob her of her inheritance. Frederick at once poured his troops into Silesia, which he claimed as having once belonged to Bran-

¹ An Irishman seven feet high was hired by a bounty equal to \$6,200,—a larger sum than the salary of the Prussian ambassador at the court of St. James.

² Frederick's father possessed “eccentricities such as,” says Macaulay, “had never before been seen outside of a mad-house.” He would cane clergymen who ventured to stop in the street to admire his famous soldiery, and even kick judges off the bench for rendering a decision opposed to his wishes. On one occasion he tried to push his daughter into the fire, and for the least complaint from his children at the table he would throw the dishes at their heads. The Crown Prince Frederick excited the king's bitterest animosity. Frederick showed little love for a military life; liked finery; studied Latin clandestinely; played the flute; wore long, curly locks; and preferred the French language and manners to the homely German. His father flogged him in front of his regiment, and then taunted him with the disgrace. At last Fritz's life became so unendurable that he tried to run away, but he was arrested, condemned by court-martial, and would have been executed by the irate king had not half the crowned heads in Europe interfered. Afterward Fritz contrived to soften the hatred of his surly, irascible father, and in the end proved a filial sequel to him, in his hearty hatred of shams, his love of a military life, and even his slovenly dress and irritable temper.



FREDERICK THE GREAT REVIEWING HIS GRENADIERS AT POTSDAM.

denburg. The Elector of Saxony invaded Bohemia. France supported the claims of the Elector of Bavaria to the imperial crown, and a French-Bavarian army pushed to within a few leagues of Vienna. Fleeing to the Diet

of Hungary, the queen commended to it her infant son. The brave Magyar nobles, drawing their sabers, shouted, "We will die for our king, Maria Theresa!" A powerful army was formed in her defense. Frederick was bought off by the cession of Silesia. The French, left single-handed to bear the brunt of the battle, were blockaded in Prague,

and at last only by a disastrous flight escaped to the frontier. George II. now took the field at the head of the English and Hanoverian troops, and defeated the French at *Dettingen*.

Frederick, alarmed at Maria Theresa's success, and thinking she might demand back his conquests, resumed the war, and gained three battles in succession. Meanwhile the Elector of Bavaria died, his son submitted to Maria Theresa, and her husband was chosen emperor as Francis I. Frederick was only too glad to sign with Francis the Peace of Dresden, and thus retain Silesia.

But the struggle of France with Austria and England still went on. Louis XV.'s army in the Netherlands, under the famous Marshal Saxe, won the brilliant victories of *Fontenoy*, *Raucoux*, and *Larfeldt*. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) closed this unjust war. Louis, saying that he treated as a prince and not as a merchant, surrendered his conquests; so that France and England acquired nothing for all their waste of blood and treasure, while the King of Prussia, whose selfish policy began the contest, was the only real gainer.

Seven-Years' War (1756-63).—Eight years of peace now followed,—a breathing-spell that Frederick employed in improving his newly acquired lands, and in strengthening his army. Maria Theresa, however, was determined to recover Silesia, and, by the help of her great minister Kaunitz, formed an alliance of Austria, France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and Poland, against Prussia. George II. of England, in order to save his beloved Hanover, alone supported Frederick. No one imagined Prussia could meet such tremendous odds.

1st Campaign.—Frederick, learning of this league, determined to strike the first blow. Pouring his ever-ready army into Saxony, he

defeated the Austrians at *Lo'wositz* (1756), and, surrounding the Saxons, compelled them to surrender and enlist in his ranks.

2d Campaign.—The next year he beat the Austrians under the walls of *Prague*. But now misfortunes gathered fast. He met his first great defeat at *Kolin*; the Russians invaded Prussia; the Swedes landed in Pomerania; the French, after capturing the English army in Hanover, advanced toward Saxony; and in the midst of all came tidings of the death of his mother, the only being whom he loved. In despair¹ Frederick thought of suicide, but his highest glory dates from this gloomy hour. Rallying his men and his courage, he turned upon his foes, and won the victories of *Rosbach* over the French, and *Leuthen* over the Austrians. His genius set all the world to wondering. London was ablaze in his honor, and Pitt, the English prime minister, secured him a grant of £700,000 per annum.

The *3d Campaign* witnessed a victory over the Russians at *Zorndorf*, but saw Frederick beaten at *Kunersdorf*, while twenty thousand of his men surrendered in the Bohemian passes.

4th–6th Campaigns.—Now, for three years longer, the circle steadily narrowed about the desperate king. Surrounded by vastly superior armies, he multiplied his troops by flying from point to point. Beaten, he retired only to appear again in some unexpected quarter. He broke through the enemies' toils at *Leignitz*, and stormed their intrenched camp at *Torgau*.

But victory and defeat alike weakened Frederick's forces; his capital was sacked; his land wasted; his army decimated; his resources were exhausted, and it seemed as if he must yield, when a death saved him. Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, died, and her successor, Peter III., his warm friend, not only withdrew from the league, but sent him aid. The other allies were weary of the contest, and the proud Maria Theresa was forced to make peace with her hated rival. The treaties of Paris and Hubertsburg (1763) ended a gigantic struggle that had cost a million of lives.

The Result of the Seven-Years' War was to leave Silesia in Frederick's hands. He was felt to be one of the few great men whose coming into the world changes the fate of a country. Prussia, from a petty kingdom that nobody feared, was raised to be one of the Five Great Powers of Europe.

¹ In this extremity Frederick solaced himself by writing poetry. "We hardly know," says Macaulay, "any instance of the strength and weakness of human nature so striking and so grotesque as the character of this haughty, vigilant, resolute blue-stockings, bearing up against a world in arms, with an ounce of poison in one pocket and a quire of bad verses in the other."

She was now the rival of Austria. The question which should be supreme was not settled until our own time.¹ The Holy Roman Empire was thenceforth, in effect, divided between these two leaders, and the minor German states were grouped about them according to their interest or inclination.

Government.—Frederick quickly set himself to repair the waste of these terrible years. He practiced the most rigid economy, rebuilt houses, furnished seed, pensioned the widows and children of the slain, drained marshes, constructed roads and canals, established museums, and developed trade. When he inherited the kingdom, it contained two millions of inhabitants, and a treasury with six million thalers; he died, leaving an industrious and happy people numbering six millions, and a public treasure of seventy-two million thalers.²

¹ The "Seven-Years' War" made Prussia a European power; a "Seven-Weeks' War" (1866) placed it above Austria; and a "Seven-Months' War" (1870) made the King of Prussia emperor of all Germany.

² One of his last acts was to make a treaty with our young republic; and our historians record with pride that he sent to Washington a sword inscribed, "The oldest general in the world to the bravest." Like his father, he was fond of walking or riding through the streets, talking familiarly with the people, and now and then using his cane upon an idler. On one occasion he met a company of schoolboys, and roughly addressed them, "Boys, what are you doing here? Be off to school." One of the boldest answered, "Oh, you are king, and don't know there is no school to-day!" Frederick laughed heartily, dropped his uplifted cane, and gave the urchins a piece of money with which to enjoy their holiday.—A windmill at Potsdam stood on some ground which he wanted for his park, but he could not get it because the miller refused to sell, and he, though absolute monarch, would not force him to leave. This building is carefully preserved to-day, as a monument of Frederick's respect for the rights of a poor man (Taylor's Hist. of Germany). The famous palace at Potsdam was built by Frederick just after the Seven-Years' War, to show the world that he was not so poor as was supposed. It is second only to the palace of Versailles. Building was Frederick's sole extravagance. After the war, he had only one fine suit of clothes for the rest of his life. It is said that he was buried in a shirt belonging to a servant. He allowed free speech and a free press. "My people and I," said he, "understand each other. They are to *say* what they like, and I am to *do* what I like." He tolerated all religions, probably because he cared for none himself. His infidelity, his hatred of woman, his disregard of the feelings and lives of others, and his share in the spoliation of Poland (p. 219), form the dark side of this brilliant character, and leave us no chance to love, however highly we may admire.

III. ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

The House of Hanover, which still wears the crown of England, came to the throne early in the 18th century. Parliament, to secure a Protestant succession, changed it (1701) from the male Stuart line to Sophia of Hanover, whose mother was sister to Charles I. Sophia having died, her son George, Elector of Hanover, became king (1714), thus uniting the crowns of Hanover and England.

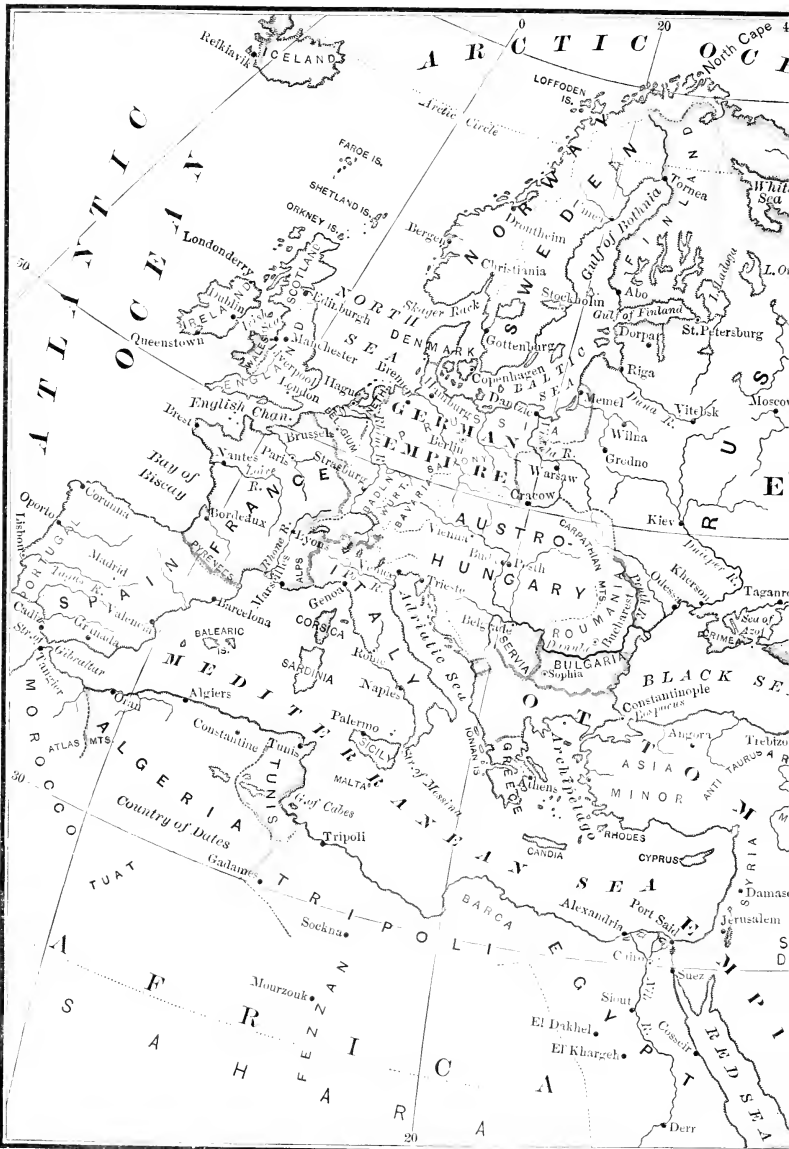
TABLE OF THE HANOVER (BRUNSWICK-LUNEBURG) LINE.

GEORGE I. (1714-27). Compare table, p. 188.		
GEORGE II. (1727-60).		
GEORGE III. (1760-1820), grandson of George II.		
GEORGE IV. (1820-30).	WILLIAM IV. (1830-37).	EDWARD, Duke of Kent.
		VICTORIA (1837).

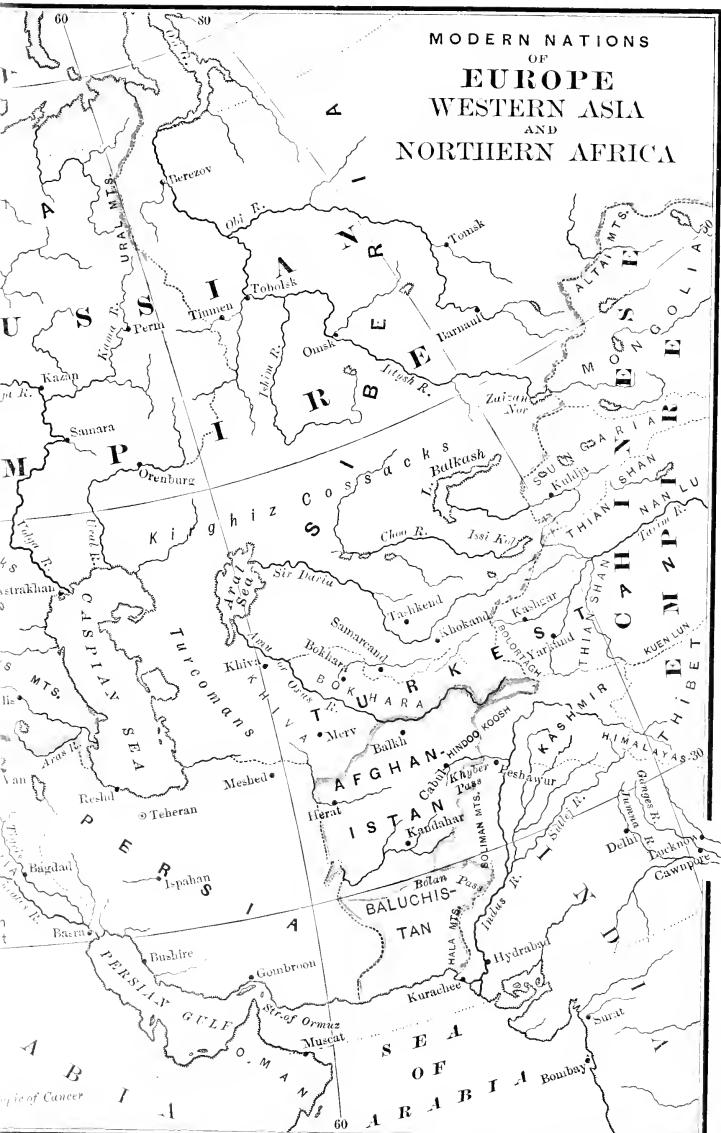
The political history of England under the Georges reveals an increased power of the House of Commons and a bitter strife between Whigs and Tories. The 18th century saw also our Revolutionary War with England.

George I. (1714-27), a little, elderly German, unable to speak a word of English, cold, shy, obstinate, and sullen; whose manners were as bad as his morals; whose wife was imprisoned for some alleged misconduct; and whose heart was always in his beloved Hanover,—naturally excited little feeling of loyalty among his British subjects. He was, however, frugal, industrious, truthful, and governed by a strong sense of duty. A despot in Hanover, he was a moderate ruler in England, leaving the control of the country mostly to Parliament. Having been elected by the Whigs, he chose his ministers from that party.

The South Sea Scheme, or Company, was organized (1720) to assume a part of the national debt, and, in return, to



MODERN NATIONS
OF
EUROPE
WESTERN ASIA
AND
NORTHERN AFRICA



have a monopoly of the South American trade. It brought on a rage for speculation. The shares rose to ten times their par value. Finally the bubble burst, a panic ensued, and thousands were ruined. In this emergency all eyes turned to

Robert Walpole, who was made prime minister. His financial skill restored the public credit. For over twenty years (1721–42) he controlled the domestic policy of the country. He was a shrewd party-leader, and is said to have managed the House of Commons by bribery; but his policy made for peace and liberty, and meanwhile England prospered.

George II. (1727–60) could speak a little English, and so had the advantage over his father. He possessed, however, no kingly virtues except justice and bravery; while his attachment to his native country kept him interfering in continental affairs.¹ England was thus dragged into the War of the Austrian Succession, and the Seven-Years' War.

In the *War of the Austrian Succession*, George beat the French at Dettingen;² his son, the Duke of Cumberland, was beaten by them at Fontenoy. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, that closed the contest, gave England no return for the blood and gold her king had lavished so freely.

In the *Seven-Years' War*, England and France measured their strength mainly by sea, and in America and India. This contest is known in our history as the French and Indian War (Hist. U. S., p. 81). It culminated in the battle of the Plains of Abraham, that wrested Canada from the

¹ George, who was over thirty years old when his father became king, was always running "home" to Hanover. Once he was gone two years, while Queen Caroline remained in England. During his absence, a notice was posted on the gate of St. James's Palace: "Lost or strayed out of this house a man who has left his wife and six children on the parish. A reward is offered of four shillings and sixpence for news of his whereabouts. Nobody thinks him worth a crown (five shillings)."

² George was a dapper little choleric sovereign. At Dettingen his horse ran away, and he came near being carried into the enemy's line. Dismounting, he cried out, "Now, I know I shall not run away," and, charging at the head of his men, he encouraged them with bad English but genuine pluck. It was the last time an English king was seen in battle.

French. In Asia, Robert Clive, by the victory of *Plassey* (1757), broke the French power and laid the foundation of England's supremacy in the East.¹

William Pitt, the Great Commoner (afterward Earl of Chatham), came to the front during these colonial wars. He ruled by the strength of his character, and "trusting his countrymen," says Gardiner, "above that which they were able to do, roused them to do more than they had ever done before." Under his vigorous premiership, England won two empires,—North America and India.

The Rise of Methodism was a remarkable event of this reign. It began at Oxford, in the meeting of a little band of university men for prayer and religious conversation. Their zeal and methodic ways gave them the nickname of Methodists. But from that company went forth Whitefield, such a preacher as England had never before seen; Charles Wesley, the "Sweet Singer;" and John Wesley, the head and organizer of the new movement. "Their voice was heard," says Green, "in the wildest and most barbarous corners of the land, among the bleak moors of Northumberland, in the dens of London, or in the long galleries where the Cornish miner hears in the pauses of his labor the sobbing of the sea." They were mobbed, stoned, and left for dead; but their enthusiasm stirred the heart of England, aroused men to philanthropic work among the English masses, gave to common life a spiritual meaning, started evangelical labors in the Established Church, and founded a denomination that in our time numbers its members by millions.

¹ The wars in India have been characterized by fiendish cruelty. Thus, in the year preceding Plassey, the nabob of Bengal drove one hundred and forty-six English prisoners into a close room twenty feet square (known as the Black Hole), and left them to die of suffocation. The next morning only twenty-three persons remained alive. It is noticeable that England in first meddling with, and then absorbing, province after province in India, has followed the old Roman plan (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 237).

George III. (1760–1820) was a “born Englishman,” and so the people ceased to grumble about “foreign kings.” In his first speech to Parliament he said: “Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton.”

The purity and piety of George’s private character gave to the English court a beautiful home-life. But, though a good man, this “Best of the Georges” did not prove a good king. He was dull, ill educated, prejudiced, obstinate, and bent upon getting power for himself. The Tories got control of the government. Pitt retired from the ministry. George, jealous of great men, brought about him incompetent ministers like Bute, Grenville, and North,—mouthpieces of his stupid will and blind courage. In such an administration, one easily finds the causes that cost England her American colonies.

This was the longest reign in English history, and reached far into the 19th century. Late in his life (p. 277) the king became insane,¹ and the Prince of Wales ruled as regent. The sixty years saw England involved in the War of the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the War of 1812–14.



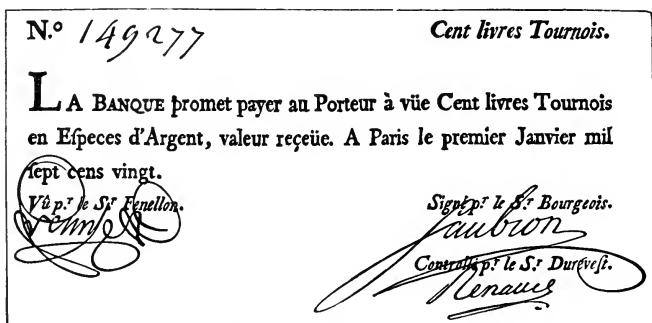
GEORGE III.

¹ George III. had been subject for many years to occasional attacks of insanity. History presents no sadder figure than that of this old man, blind and deprived of reason, wandering through the rooms of his palace, addressing imaginary parliaments, reviewing fancied troops, and holding ghostly courts. . . . Some lucid moments he had, in one of which the queen, desiring to see him, entered the room, and found him singing a hymn and accompanying himself at the harpsichord. When he had finished, he knelt down, and prayed aloud for her, for his family, and then for the nation. He concluded with a prayer for himself that it might please God to avert his calamity from him, but if not to give him resignation to submit. Upon that he burst into tears, and again his reason fled (Thackeray’s *Four Georges*).

Fox, and Pitt the Younger, were, after the American Revolution, the great statesmen of the day. The former led the Whigs; the latter (second son of the Great Commoner), the Tories. Fox possessed eloquence and ability, but he was a gambler and a boon-companion of the erring Prince of Wales. Pitt,¹ Fox's rival and his equal as an orator and statesman, became prime minister at twenty-four years of age; his policy controlled the government for eighteen years (1783-1801).

IV. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Louis XV. (1715-74) was only five years old at the death of his great-grandfather, the Grand Monarch. The



FACSIMILE OF LAW'S PAPER MONEY.

regency fell to the Duke of Orleans,—a man without honor or principle. The public debt was enormous, and the government had no credit. To meet the emergency, Orleans adopted the project of John Law, an adventurer, and issued a vast amount of paper money upon the security of imagi-

¹ Pitt's character was unimpeachable. Thus, while his own income was but £300 per year, a sinecure post with £3000 per annum became vacant, and, as he had the power of filling it, every one supposed he would appoint himself to the place. Instead, he gave it to Col. Barré, who was old and blind. When Pitt retired from the ministry he was poor (compare Aristides, *Anc. Peo.*, p. 135).

nary mines in Louisiana. But this Mississippi Bubble, like the South Sea Scheme (the same year) in England, burst in overwhelming ruin.

An Era of Shame.—Louis early plunged into vice. The real rulers of France were his favorites, Madame de Pompadour, and later the Comtesse du Barri. The world had not seen such a profligate court since the days of the Roman emperors. The War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven-Years' War had de-

prived France of vast possessions and added hundreds of millions to the already hopeless debt. Louis foresaw the coming storm, and, with Pompadour, repeated, "After me the deluge;" yet he sanctioned the most iniquitous schemes to raise money for his vices, and silenced all opposition by the dungeons of the Bastile.

Louis XVI. (1774–93), a good, well-meaning young man, but shy and woefully ignorant of public affairs, succeeded to this heritage of extravagance, folly, and crime,—a bankrupt treasury and a starving people. His wife, Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa, though beautiful and innocent, was of the hated House of Austria, and her gay



LOUIS XVI., MARIE ANTOINETTE, AND THE DAUPHIN.



PORTRAIT OF TURGOT.



PORTRAIT OF NECKER.

thoughtlessness added to the general discontent. Louis desired to redress the wrongs of the country, but he did not know how.¹ Minister succeeded minister, like shifting figures in a kaleidoscope. Turgot, Necker, Calonne, Brienne, Necker again, each tried in vain to solve the problem. As a last resort, the States-General—which had not met in a hundred and seventy-five years—was assembled, May 5, 1789. It was the first day of the Revolution.

The Condition of France at this time reveals many causes of the Revolution. The people were overwhelmed by taxation, while the nobility and clergy, who owned two thirds of the land, were nearly exempt. The taxes were “farmed out,” *i. e.*, leased, to persons who retained all they could collect over the specified amount. The unhappy tax-payers were treated with relentless severity, to swell the profits of these farmers-general. Each family was compelled to buy a certain amount of salt, whether needed or not. The laws were enacted by those who considered the common people born for the use of the higher class. Justice could be secured only by bribery or political influence. Men were sent to prison without trial or charges, and kept there till death. When the royal treasury needed replenishing, a restriction of trade was imposed, and licenses were issued for even the commonest callings. The peasants were obliged to labor on roads, bridges, etc., without pay. In some districts every farmer had thus been ruined. Large tracts of land were declared game-preserves, where wild boars and deer roamed at pleasure. The power given to the noble over the peasants living on his estate was absolute. Lest the young game might be disturbed or its flavor impaired, the starving peasant could neither weed his little plot of ground nor suitably enrich it. He must grind his corn at the lord’s mill, bake his bread in the lord’s oven, and

¹ A princess of the royal family, being told that the people had no bread, exclaimed in all simplicity, “Then why not give them cake!”

press his grapes at the lord's wine-press, paying whatever price the lord might charge. When the wife of the seigneur was ill, the peasants were expected to beat the neighboring marshes all night, to prevent the frogs from croaking, and so disturbing the lady's rest. French agriculture had not advanced beyond that of the 10th century, and the plow in use might have belonged to Virgil's time. To complete the picture of rural wretchedness, one hundred and fifty thousand serfs were bought and sold with the land on which they were born.

The strife between classes had awakened an intense hatred. The nobles not only placed their haughty feet on the necks of the peasants, but also spoke contemptuously of the opulent merchants, and artisans. In turn, the wealthy merchants hated and despised the spendthrift, dissolute, arrogant hangers-on at court, whose ill-gotten revenues were far below their own incomes from business.

A boastful skepticism prevailed, and all that is amiable in religion or elevating in morals was made a subject of ridicule. The writings of Rousseau, Voltaire, Helvetius, Diderot, and other infidels, with their brilliant and fascinating theories of liberty, weakened long-cherished truths, mocked at virtue, and made men restive under any restraint, human or divine.

Democratic ideas were rife. Despotism was unendurable to men who had imbibed the new principles of liberty, and especially to those who, like La Fayette (*Hist. U. S.*, pp. 119, 127), had helped the United States to win its freedom. Louis XVI. might have delayed, but could not have averted,

the impending catastrophe. The Revolution was but the blossoming of a seed planted long before, and of a plant whose slow and sure growth thoughtful men had watched for years.



FRENCH FAGOT-VENDER (18TH CENTURY).

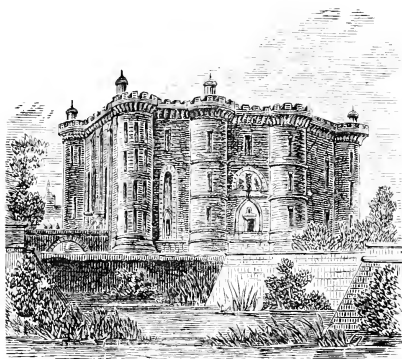


FEMALE HEAD-DRESS (18TH CENTURY).

1. ABOLITION OF THE MONARCHY.

The National Assembly.—The *tiers état*, proving to be the most powerful body in the States-General, invited the nobles and clergy to join it, and declared itself the National Assembly.¹ Louis closed the hall; whereupon the members repaired to a tennis court near by, and swore not to separate until they had given a constitution to France. Soon the king yielded, and at his request the coronets and miters met with the commons. To overawe the refractory Assembly, the court collected 30,000 soldiers about Versailles.

The Paris Mob, excited by this menace to the people's



THE BASTILLE.

representatives, rose in arms, stormed the grim old Bastille,² and razed its dungeons to the ground. The insurrection swept over the country like wild-fire. As in the days of the Jacquerie (p. 58), chateaux were burned, and tax-gatherers tortured to death. Finally a maddened crowd, cry-

ing "Bread, bread!" surged out to Versailles, sacked the palace, and, in savage glee, brought the royal family to Paris. Various political clubs began to get control. Chief of these were the Jacobin and the Cordelier (Brief Hist. France, p. 206), whose leaders—Robespierre, Marat, and Danton—preached sedition and organized the Revolution.

¹ This step is said to have been taken by the advice of Thomas Jefferson, our minister plenipotentiary to France.

² Its key, given by La Fayette to Washington, is preserved at Mount Vernon.

Reforms (1789-91).¹—The Assembly, in a furor of patriotism, extinguished feudal privileges, abolished serfdom, and equalized taxation. The law of primogeniture was ab-



SCENE IN PARIS AFTER THE STORMING OF THE BASTILLE.

rogated; titles were annulled; liberty of conscience and of the press was proclaimed; and France was divided into eighty-three departments instead of the old provinces.

¹ "It was plain that the First Estate must bow its proud head before the five and twenty savage millions, make restitution, speak well, smile fairly—or die. The memorable 4th of August came, when the nobles did this, making ample confession of their weakness. The Visconte de Noailles proposed to reform the taxation by subjecting to it every order and rank; by regulating it according to the fortune of the individual; and by abolishing personal servitude and every remaining vestige of the feudal system. An enthusiasm, which was half fear and half reckless excitement, spread throughout the Assembly. The aristocrats rose in their places and publicly renounced their seignorial dues, privileges, and immunities. The clergy abolished tithes and tributes. The representative bodies resigned their municipal rights. All this availed little; it should have been done months before to have weighed with the impatient commons. The people scorned a generosity which relinquished only that which was untenable, and cared not for the recognition of a political equality that had already been established with the pike" (Miss Edwards's *History of France*).

The estates of the clergy were confiscated, and upon this security notes (assignats) were issued to meet the expenses of the government.¹ Having adopted a constitution, the Assembly adjourned, and a new body was chosen, called

The Legislative Assembly (1791).—The mass of its members were ignorant and brutal. The most respectable were the Girondists, who professed the simplicity and exalted virtue of the old Roman republic. The Jacobins, Cordeliers, and other violent demagogues, were fused by a common hatred of the king into one bitter, opposing party.

Attack upon the Tuileries.—Austria and Prussia now took up arms in behalf of Louis, and invaded France. This sealed the fate of monarch and monarchy. Louis was known to be in correspondence with the princes and the French nobles who had joined the enemy. The approach of the allies, and especially the threats of the Prussian general, kindled the fury of the Parisian masses. The Girondists made common cause with the Jacobins in stirring up the rabble to dethrone the king. The Marseillaise was heard for the first time in the streets of Paris. The palace of the Tuileries was sacked; the Swiss guards, faithful to the last, were slain; and Louis was sent to prison.

The Jacobins, now supreme, arrested all who opposed their revolutionary projects. The prisons being full, hired assassins went from one to another for four days of that terrible September, massacring the unhappy inmates. A thirst for blood seized the populace, and even women eagerly witnessed this carnival of murder.

Battle of Valmy (1792).—In the midst of these events, the Prussian army was checked at *Valmy*; soon after, it re-

¹ About this time the frightened royal family attempted flight in disguise. When almost to the frontier, they were detected, and were brought back to the Tuileries, to be watched more closely than ever (Brief Hist. France, p. 207).

crossed the frontier. The victory of *Jemmapes* over the Austrians followed, and Belgium was proclaimed a republic.

The Effect of these successes was electrical. The leaders of the Revolution were elated, and the nation was encouraged to enter upon a career of conquest that ultimately shook the continent of Europe.

The National Convention.—The next Assembly established a republic. “Louis Capet,” as they styled the king, was arraigned, and, in spite of the timid protest of the Girondists, was condemned and guillotined (1793). His head fell amid savage shouts of “Vive la République!”

2. THE REIGN OF TERROR (1793-94).

Jacobin Rule.—Nearly all Europe leagued to avenge Louis's death. England was the soul of this coalition, and freely gave to it her gold and arms. The royalists held Marseilles, Bordeaux, Lyons, and Toulon. An insurrection burst out in La Vendée. But the terrible energy of the convention crushed all opposition. Its Committee of Public Safety knew neither fear nor pity. Revolutionary tribunals were set up, before which were dragged those suspected of moderation or of sympathy with the “aristocrats.” Every morning the tumbrils carried to execution the victims of the day. The crowd screamed with delight as Marie Antoinette,¹ prematurely gray, mounted the scaffold on which her husband had perished. The Girondists were overwhelmed in the ruin they had aided in creating. At Lyons the work of the guillotine proved too tedious, and the victims were mowed down by grape-shot; at Nantes boat-loads were rowed out and sunk in the Loire.

¹ Her little son, “Louis XVII.,” died after two years of horrible suffering in prison (Brief Hist. France, p. 216). Romance has pictured this “Lost Dauphin” as saved and secretly conveyed to America.

In the midst of the carnage a new calendar was instituted, to date from September 22, 1792, which was to be the first day of the year 1, the epoch of the foundation of the republic. New names were given to the months and days; Sunday was abolished, and every tenth day appointed for rest and amusement. Christian worship was prohibited. Churches and convents were desecrated, plundered, and burned. Marriage was declared to be only a civil contract, which might be broken at pleasure. Notre Dame was converted into a Temple of Reason, and a gaudily dressed woman, wearing a red cap of liberty, was enthroned as goddess. Over the entrance to the cemeteries were inscribed the words: *Death is an eternal sleep.*



GIRONDISTS ON THE WAY TO EXECUTION.

Fate of the Terrorists.—Marat had already perished—stabbed by Charlotte Corday, a young girl who gladly gave up her life to rid her country of this monster. Danton now showing signs of relenting, his ruthless associates sent him to the scaffold. For nearly four dreadful months Robespierre ruled supreme. He aimed to destroy all the other leaders. The ax plied faster than ever as he went

on "purging society" by murder. The accused were forbidden defense, and tried *en masse*.¹ At last, impelled by a common fear, friends and foes combined to overthrow the tyrant. A furious struggle ensued. When Robespierre's head fell (July 28, 1794), the Reign of Terror ended.

A Reaction now set in. The revolutionary clubs were abolished; the prison doors were flung wide; the churches were opened; the surviving Girondists were recalled, and the emigrant priests and nobles invited to return.

Triumph of the French Arms (1794-95).—While the Terrorists were sending long lines of victims to the scaffold, the defenders of the new republic were pouring toward the threatened frontiers. During the pauses of the guillotine, all Paris accompanied the troops outside the city gates, shouting the Marseillaise. Pichegru, Hoche, Jourdan, and Moreau led the republican armies to continued success. The royalists in La Vendée were routed, Belgium was overrun, and the Rhine held from Worms to Nimeguen. Even winter did not stop the progress of the French arms. Pichegru led his troops across the Meuse upon the ice, and, conquering Holland without a battle, organized the *Batavian Republic*. Peace was made with Prussia and Spain, but England and Austria continued the war.



ROBESPIERRE.

¹ In the national archives of Paris, there is preserved an order of execution which was signed in blank, and afterward filled up with the names of twenty-seven persons, one of whom was a boy of sixteen.

Establishment of the Directory.—It had become apparent that the union in one legislative house of the three orders in the States-General was a mistake. It was therefore decided to have a *Council of Five Hundred* to propose laws, and a *Council of the Ancients* to pass or to reject them. The executive power was



COSTUMES OF THE THREE ORDERS.

to be lodged in a *Directory* of five persons.

The Day of the Sections (October 5, 1795).—The Convention, in order to secure its work, decreed that two thirds of each council should be appointed from its own number. Thereupon the royalists excited the Sections (as the municipal divisions of Paris were called) to rise in arms. General Barras (rä), who was in command of the defense, called to his aid Napoleon Buonaparte.¹ This young officer skillfully

¹ Napoleon Buonaparte was born at Ajaccio, Corsica, August 15, 1769, two months after the conquest of that island by the French. (It is claimed, however, that, not wishing to be foreign-born, he changed the date of his birth.) His father, Charles Buonaparte, was a lawyer of straitened means. We read that when the future soldier was a child his favorite plaything was a small brass cannon, and that he loved to drill the children of the neighborhood to battle with stones and wooden sabers. At ten he was sent to the

Buonaparte

FACSIMILE OF THE SIGNATURE OF NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE,
MUSÉE DES ARCHIVES NATIONALES, PARIS.

posted his troops about the Tuileries, and planted cannon to rake the approaches. His pitiless guns put the insurgents to flight, leaving five hundred of their number on the pavement. The people were subdued. Their master had come, and street tumults were at an end.

3. DIRECTORY.

The Glory of the Directory lay in the achievements of its soldiers. Napoleon Buonaparte, though only twenty-six years old, was put at the head of the army which was to invade Italy, then defended by the Austrian and Piedmontese armies. Henceforth, for nearly twenty years, his life is the history of France, almost that of Europe.



NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE.

Italian Campaign (1796-97).—Buonaparte found at Nice a destitute French army of thirty-eight thousand

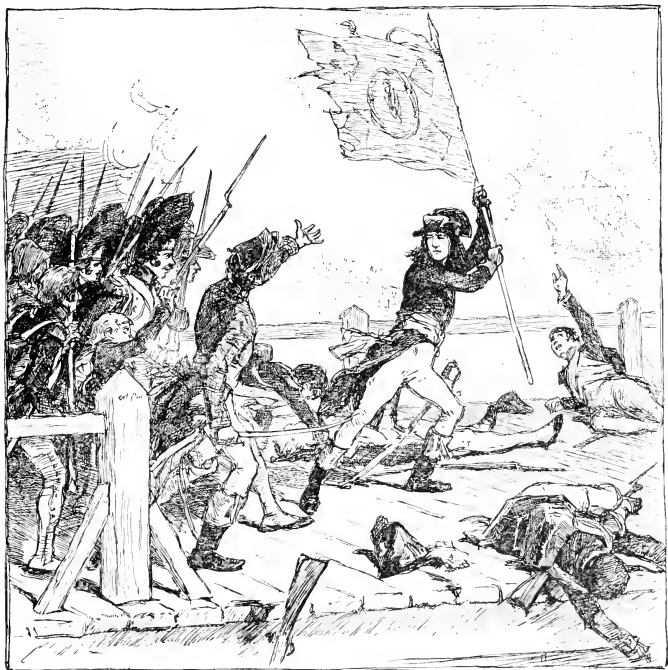
military school at Brienne. Resolute, quarrelsome, gloomy, not much liked by his companions, he lived apart; but he was popular with his teachers, and became the head scholar in mathematics. At sixteen he went to Paris to complete his studies. Poor and proud, discontented with his lot, tormented by the first stirrings of genius, he became a misanthrope. He entered the army as lieutenant, and first distinguished himself during the siege of Toulon. By skillfully planting his batteries, he drove off the English fleet and forced the surrender of that city. A few days after the disarming of the Sections, Eugene Beauharnais, a boy of ten years, came to Buonaparte to claim the sword of his father, who had fallen on the scaffold during the Revolution. Touched by his tears, Buonaparte ordered the sword to be given him. This led to a call from Madame de Beauharnais. The beauty, wit, and grace of the creole widow won the heart of the Corsican general. Their mutual friend, Barras, promised them as a marriage gift Buonaparte's appointment to the command of the army of Italy.

men, while in front was a well-equipped army numbering sixty thousand. But he did not hesitate. Issuing one of those electrical proclamations for which he was afterward so famous, he suddenly forced the passes of Montenotte, and pierced the center of the enemy's line. He had now placed himself between the Piedmontese and the Austrians, and could follow either. He pursued the former to within ten leagues of Turin, when the King of Sardinia, trembling for his crown and capital, stopped the conqueror by an armistice, which was soon converted into a peace, giving up to France his strongholds and the passes of the Alps.

Battle of Lodi.—Delivered from one foe, Buonaparte turned upon the other. At Lodi he found the Austrians strongly intrenched upon the opposite bank of the Adda. Charging at the head of his grenadiers, amid a tempest of shot and ball, he crossed the bridge and bayoneted the cannoneers at their guns. The Austrians fled for refuge into the Tyrol Mountains.

Authorized Pillage.—Then commenced a system of spoliation unknown to modern warfare. Not only was war to support war, but also to enrich the victor. Contributions were levied upon the vanquished states. A body of *savants* was sent into Italy to select the treasures of art from each conquered city. The Pope was forced to give twenty-one millions of francs, one hundred pictures, and five hundred manuscripts. The wants of the army were supplied, and millions of money forwarded to Paris. The officers and commissioners seized provisions, horses, etc., paying nothing. A swarm of jobbers, contractors, and speculators hovered about the army, and gorged themselves to repletion. The Italians, weary of the Austrian yoke, at first welcomed the French, but soon found that their new masters, who came as brothers, plundered them like robbers.

Battles of Castiglione and Bassano.—Sixty thousand Austrians, under Wurmser, were now marching in separate divisions on opposite sides of Lake Garda, in order to envelop the French in their superior numbers. Buonaparte first checked the force on the western bank, then routed the main body at *Castiglione*. Wurmser fell back into the Tyrol.



BUONAPARTE AT THE BRIDGE OF ARCOLE.

Reënforced, he made a new essay. But ere he could debouch from the passes, Buonaparte plunged into the gorges of the mountains, and defeated him again at *Bassano*.

Battle of Arcole.—Two Austrian armies had disappeared; a third now arrived under Alvinczy. Leaving Verona with

only fourteen thousand men, Buonaparte took the road for Milan. It was the route to France. Suddenly turning to the north, he descended the Adige, crossed the river, and placed his army in the midst of a marsh traversed only by two causeways. Fighting on these narrow roads, numbers were of no account. At the bridge of Arcole, Buonaparte, seeing his grenadiers hesitate, seized a banner, and exclaiming, "Follow your general," rushed forward. Borne back in the arms of his soldiers, during the *melee* he fell into the marsh, and was with difficulty rescued. A ford was finally found and the bridge was turned. A fearful struggle of three days ensued, when the Austrians, half destroyed, were put to flight.

Battle of Rivoli.—Alvinezy, reënforced, again descended into Italy. The principal army advanced in two columns,—the infantry in one, and the cavalry and artillery in the other. Buonaparte saw that the only point where they could unite was on the plateau of Rivoli. As they debouched, he launched upon them Joubert, and then Masséna.¹ Both of the enemy's columns recoiled in inextricable confusion.

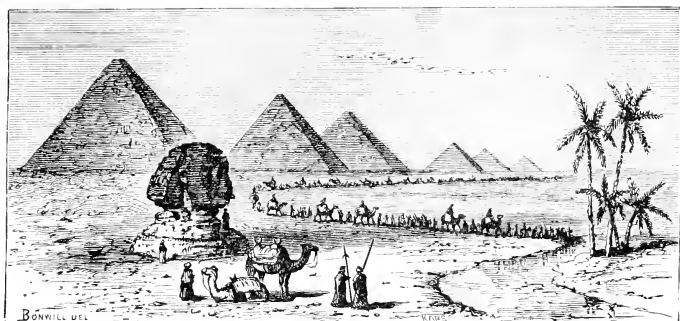
Having vanquished three imperial armies in Italy, Buonaparte next crossed the Alps, and advanced upon Vienna. The Austrian government, in consternation, asked for a suspension of arms.

The Treaty of Campo Formio (1797) closed this famous campaign. Belgium was ceded to France, with the long-coveted boundary of the Rhine. Austria was allowed to take Venice and its dependencies.

Neighboring Republics.—The Directory endeavored to control the neighboring states as if they were French

¹ Masséna's division fought at Verona on the 13th of January, marched all that night to help Joubert, who was exhausted by forty-eight hours' fighting, was in the battle of Rivoli the 14th, and marched that night and the 15th to reach Mantua on the 16th. Marches, which with ordinary generals were merely the movements of troops, with Buonaparte meant battles, and often decided the fate of a campaign.

provinces; to change their form of government; and to exact enormous contributions. At the close of 1798 the Directory found itself at the head of no less than six republics, including Holland, Switzerland, and Italy.



THE PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT.

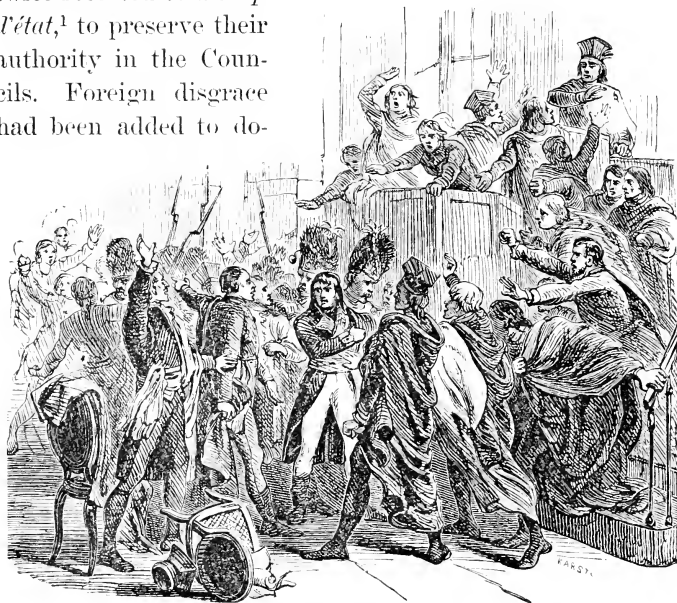
An Expedition to Egypt (1798–99) having been proposed by Buonaparte, and accepted by the Directory, the conqueror of Italy, eager for new triumphs, set sail with thirty-six thousand men,—the heroes of Rivoli and Arcole. On his way he captured Malta, but narrowly escaped the English cruisers under Nelson. Landing near Alexandria,¹ Buonaparte at once pushed on to Cairo, defeating the Mamelukes under the shadow of the Pyramids.² But soon after Nelson annihilated the French fleet in the Bay of Aboukir. Cut off thus from Europe, Buonaparte, dreaming of founding an empire in the East and overthrowing the British rule in India, turned into Syria. The walls of Acre, however, manned by English sailors under Sidney Smith, checked his progress; and, after defeating the Turks with terrible

¹ During this occupation of Egypt, a French engineer discovered the Rosetta stone,—the key to reading the Egyptian hieroglyphics (*Anc. Peo.*, p. 22).

² "Soldiers!" exclaimed Buonaparte, "from yonder pyramids forty centuries look down upon you."

slaughter at the foot of Mount Tabor, he retreated across the desert to Egypt. There he secretly abandoned his army, and returned to France.

At Paris he was gladly welcomed. "Their Five Majesties of the Luxemburg," as the Directors were styled, had twice resorted to a *coup d'état*,¹ to preserve their authority in the Councils. Foreign disgrace had been added to do-



BUONAPARTE BEFORE THE COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED.

mestic anarchy. A *Second Coalition* (composed of England, Austria, Russia, etc.) having been formed against France, the fruits of Campo Formio had been quickly lost. The French armies, forced back upon the frontier, were in want. A panic of fear seized the people. The hero of Italy offered the only hope. A new *coup d'état* was planned. Buona-

¹ This is a word for which as yet happily, we have no English equivalent. It is literally "a stroke-of-state."

parte's grenadiers drove the members of the Council of Five Hundred from their chamber, as Cromwell's soldiers had driven the Long Parliament a century and a half before. The roll of the drums drowned the last cry of "*Vive la République.*"

A new Constitution was now adopted. The government was to consist of a Council of State, a Tribune, a Legislature, a Senate, and three Consuls,—Buonaparte and two others named by him. In February, 1800, the First Consul took up his residence in the Tuileries. The Revolution had culminated in a despot.

THE CIVILIZATION.

The Progress of Letters.—Queen Anne's reign was the Augustan age of *English Literature*. Questions of party politics, society, life, and character were discussed; and wit, ridicule, and satire were employed as never before. The affluence of the old school of authors gave way to correctness of form and taste. Pope's "Essay on Man" and "Essay on Criticism," with their "sonorous couplets brilliant with antithesis," are yet admired. Swift's "Gulliver's Travels" satirized the manners and customs of the time. Addison and Steele, in their periodicals the "Tatler" and the "Spectator," popularized literature, and "brought philosophy," as Steele expressed it, "out of libraries, schools, and colleges, to dwell in clubs, at tea tables, and in coffee-houses." The style of Addison was long considered a model of graceful, elegant prose. De Foe's "Robinson Crusoe" still charms the heart of every boy.

Samuel Johnson, with his ponderous periods, is to us the principal figure of English literature from about the middle of the 18th century. In his "English Dictionary" he was the first author who appealed for support directly to the public, and not to some great man. He established a realm of letters, and long held in London a literary court in which he ruled as undisputed king. Literature had begun to take its present form; newspapers commenced to play a part; a new class of men arose,—the journalists; and authorship assumed fresh impulses on every hand. Richardson, Fielding, and Smollett laid the foundation of the modern novel. Thompson's "Seasons," Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard," Goldsmith's "Traveler" and "The Deserted Village," Cowper's "Task," and Burns's "The Cotter's Saturday Night," were familiar stepping-stones in the progress of poetry into a new world, that of

nature. Burke, by his sounding sentences and superb rhetoric, made the power of letters felt by every class in society. Hume wrote the "History of England;" and Robertson, that of Charles V.,—the first literary histories in our language. Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" elevated historical study to the accuracy of a scientific treatise. Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" founded the science of political economy.



In France, the 18th century was preëminently an age of infidelity and skepticism. Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu, as well as Diderot, D'Alembert, and the other liberal thinkers who wrote upon the Encyclopædia, while they urged the doctrines of freedom and the natural rights of man, recklessly assaulted time-honored creeds and institutions.

In Germany, the efforts of Lessing, Winckelmann, Klopstock, and other patriots, had created a reaction against French influence. The "Twin Sons of Jove," as their countrymen liked to call them,—Schiller, with his impassioned lyrics, and Goethe, one of the profoundest poets of any age or country,—elevated German literature to a classical perfection. The philosophical spirit gathered strength from this triumph, and gave birth to those four great teachers—Kant, Fichte, Hegel, and Schelling—who afterward laid the foundation of German metaphysics.

Both the French and the German writers exerted a powerful effect upon England, and, from the dawn of the French Revolution far into the 19th century, produced a remarkable outburst of literature. The

philosophic mind finds congenial employment in tracing their respective influence upon the writings of Scott, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Moore, Shelley, and Byron,—all of whom burned to redress the wrongs of man, and dreamed of a golden age of human perfection.

Science now spread so rapidly on every side, that one strains his eyes in vain to trace the expanding stream. *Chemistry* took on its present form. Black discovered carbonic-acid gas; Cavendish, hydrogen gas; Priestley and Scheele, oxygen gas; and Rutherford, the properties of nitrogen gas. Lavoisier proved that respiration and combustion are merely forms of oxidation, and he was thus able to create an orderly nomenclature for the science. *Physics* was enriched by Black's discovery of the latent heat of melting ice. Franklin, experimenting with his kite, imprisoned the thunderbolt. Galvani, seeing the twitching of some frogs' legs that were hanging from iron hooks, found out the mysterious galvanism. Volta invented a way of producing electricity by chemical action, and of carrying the current through a wire both ends of which were connected with the battery. Dollond invented the achromatic lens that gives the value to our telescope and microscope. Fahrenheit, Reaumur, and Celsius first marked off the degrees upon the thermometer (Steele's Popular Physics, p. 249), thus furnishing an instrument of precision. In *Astronomy*, Lagrange proved the self-regulating, and therefore permanent, nature of the orbits of the planets; Laplace, in his "*Mécanique Céleste*," developed Newton's theory of gravitation, and explained the anomalies in its application; and finally, Herschel, with his wonderful telescope, detected a planet (Uranus, see Steele's Astronomy, p. 189) called for by this law, and in the cloudy nebulae found the workings of this same universal force. *Natural History* was popularized by Buffon, who gathered many new facts, and detected the influence of climate and geography upon the distribution of animals. Lamarck began to lay the foundation of the theory of evolution. Cuvier found out the relation of the different parts of an animal, so that from a single bone he could restore the entire structure. Hutton taught how, by watching the changes now going on in the earth's crust, we may detect nature's mode of making the world, or the science of Geology. Linnaeus, by the system still called from his name, gave to Botany its first orderly arrangement.

Progress of Invention.—In 1705, Newcomen and Cawley patented in England the first steam-engine worth the name; and James Watt in 1765 invented the condenser that, with other improvements, rendered this machine commercially successful. The application of steam power to machinery wrought a revolution in commerce, manufactures, arts, and social life, and immensely aided in the progress of civilization. The difference between the mechanical workmanship of the 18th and 19th centuries may be seen in the almost incredible fact that Watt, in making his first engine, found his greatest difficulty from the

impossibility of boring, with the imperfect tools then in use, *a cylinder that was steam-tight*. Before the end of the century, several trial steam-boats were made, both in Europe and in America, and ere long, as every schoolboy knows, Fulton regularly navigated the Hudson.

Until the 16th century, spinning was done by the distaff, as it had been from Homer's time. The spinning-wheel of our ancestors was the first improvement. Hargreaves, about 1767, combined a number of spindles in the spinning-jenny (so named after his wife). Arkwright soon after patented the spinning-mill driven by water; and in 1779 Crompton completed the mule, or carriage for winding and spinning. In 1787, Cartwright invented the power-loom. Eli Whitney, six years later, made the cotton-gin. Such was the impetus given to cotton raising and manufacture by these inventions, that, while in 1784 an invoice of eight bags of cotton was confiscated at Liverpool on the ground that cotton was not a product of the United States, fifty years afterward we sent to England 220,000,000 pounds of cotton.

ENGLAND A HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

The Law recognized two hundred and twenty-three capital crimes. For stealing to the value of five shillings, for shooting at rabbits, or for cutting down young trees, the penalty was death. Traitors were cut in pieces by the executioner, and their heads exposed on Temple Bar to the derision of passers-by. Prisoners were forced to buy from the jailer (who had no salary) their food, and even the straw upon which to lie at night. They were allowed to stand, chained by the ankle, outside the jail, to sell articles of their own manufacture. Thus, John Bunyan sold cotton lace in front of Bedford prison. The grated windows were crowded by miserable wretches begging for alms. Many innocent persons were confined for years because they could not pay their jail fees. In 1773, Howard began his philanthropic labors in behalf of prison reform, but years elapsed before the evils he revealed were corrected. On the Continent, torture was still practiced; the prisons of Hanover, for example, had machines for tearing off the hair of the convict.

A General Coarseness and Brutality existed in society. Masters beat their servants, and husbands their wives. Profanity was common with ladies as well as gentlemen. Lawyers swore at the bar; judges, on the bench; women, in their letters; and the king, on his throne. No entertainment was complete unless the guests became stupidly drunk. Children of five years of age were habitually put to labor, and often driven to their work by blows. In mines women and children, crawling on their hands and feet in the darkness, dragged wagons of coal fastened to their waists by a chain. Military and naval discipline was maintained by the lash, and in the streets of every seaport the press-gang seized and carried off by force whom it pleased, to be sailors on the men-of-war.

London Streets were lighted only in winter and until midnight, by dim oil-lamps. The services of a link-boy with his blazing torch were needed to light one home after dark, since footpads lurked at the lonely corners, and, worst of all, bands of aristocratic young men (known as Mohocks, from the Mohawk Indians) sauntered to and fro, overturning coaches, pricking men with their swords, rolling women down-hill in a barrel, and sometimes brutally maiming their victims for life.

In the Country the roads were so bad that winter traveling was well-nigh impossible. The stage-coach (with its armed guards to protect it from highwaymen), rattling along in good weather at four miles per hour, was considered a wonderful instance of the progress of the times. Lord Campbell accomplished the journey from Edinburgh to London in three days; but his friends warned him of the dangers of such an attempt, and gravely told him of persons venturing it who had died from the very rapidity of the motion. Each town dwelt apart, following its own customs, and knowing little of the great world outside. There were villages so secluded that a stranger was considered an enemy, and the inhabitants set their dogs upon him. Each householder in the country grew his own wool or flax, which his wife and daughters colored with dyes of their own gathering, and spun, wove, and made into garments themselves.

Education.—In all England there were only about three thousand schools, public and private, and, so late as 1818, half of the children grew up destitute of education. The usual instruction of a gentleman was very superficial, consisting of a little Latin, less Greek, and a good deal of dancing. Female education was even more deplorable, and at fourteen years of age the young lady was taken out of school and plunged into the dissipations of fashionable society. Newspapers were taxed fourpence each copy, mainly to render them too costly for the poor, and so to restrain what was considered their evil influence upon the masses.

SUMMARY.

The 18th was the century of Marlborough, Peter the Great, Charles XII., Maria Theresa, William Pitt, the Georges, Louis XVI., Marie Antoinette, Robespierre, Buonaparte, Addison, Steele, Swift, Pope, Samuel Johnson, Gibbon, Burns, Burke, Voltaire, Goethe, Schiller, Kant, Canova, Handel, Mozart, Cuvier, Franklin, Laplace, Lavoisier, Galvani, Herschel, Arkwright, Watt, and Whitney. It saw the Wars of the Spanish and of the Austrian Succession; the Seven-Years' War; the rise of Russia and of Prussia; the American Revolution; the Partition of Poland; and the opening of the French Revolution,—including the execution of Louis XVI., the Reign of Terror, and Buonaparte's Italian and Egyptian Campaigns.

READING REFERENCES.

The General Modern Histories named on p. 123, and the *Special Histories of England, France, Germany, etc.*, on p. 112.—*Lecky's England in the 18th Century*.—*Allison's History of Europe* (Tory standpoint).—*Voltaire's Peter the Great*, and *Charles XII.*—*Schuyler's Peter the Great* (*Scribner's Magazine*, Vol. XXI.).—*Carlyle's Frederick the Great*.—*Longman's Frederick the Great and the Seven-Years' War*.—*Lacretelle's History of France during the 18th Century*.—*De Tocqueville's France before the Revolution*.—*The French Revolution* (*Epochs of History Series*. The Appendix of this book contains an excellent résumé of reading on this subject, by Andrew D. White).—*Lamartine's History of the Girondists*.—*Carlyle's, Mignet's, Macfarlane's, Readhead's, Michelet's, Thiers's*, and *Von Sybel's Histories of the French Revolution*.—*Lanfrey's History of Napoleon*.—*Burke's Reflections on the French Revolution*.—*Lewis's Life of Robespierre*.—*Adams's Democracy and Monarchy in France* (excellent and discriminating).—*Dickens's Tale of Two Cities* (fiction).—*Thiers's Consulate and Empire*.—*Memoirs of Madame Campan*, and of *Madame Roland*.—*Erkmann-Chatrian's Blockade, Conscript, Waterloo, etc.* (fiction).—*Abbott's, Hazlitt's, Scott's*, and *Jomini's Life of Napoleon*.—*Russel's Essay on the Cause of the French Revolution*.—*Mackintosh's Defense of the French Revolution*.—*Napier's Peninsular War*.—*Karanagh's Woman in France*.—*Darvies's Recollections of Society in France*.—*Challice's Illustrious Women of France*.—*Citoyenne Jacqueline, or a Woman's Lot in the French Revolution*.—*Madame Junot's* (the *Duchesse d'Abrantes*) *Memoirs of Napoleon, his Court and Family*.—*Thackeray's The Four Georges*.—*Madame de Rémusat's Letters* (*Napoleon's character*).—*Memoirs of Prince Metternich* (1773-1829).—*Saint-Amand's many historical works*.—*Anelia Gere Mason's Women of the French Salons*.

CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.		A. D.
Battles of Blenheim, Ramilies,		American Revolution	1775-83
Oudenarde, and Malplaquet	1704-09	Meeting of States-General	1789
Union of England and Scotland	1707	Attack on Tulleries, Aug. 10.	1792
Battle of Pultowa	1709	Battle of Jemmapes	1792
Treaty of Utrecht	1713	Louis XVI. guillotined, Jan. 21.	1793
Guelphs ascend English throne.	1714	Reign of Terror	1793-94
Charles XII. killed at Frederickshall	1718	Third Partition of Poland	1795
Frederick the Great, Age of	1740-86	Napoleon's Campaign in Italy	1796
Seven-Years' War	1756-63	Battle of the Nile	1798
First Partition of Poland	1772	Buonaparte First Consul	1799

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	PRUSSIA.
William and Mary	Louis XIV.	Leopold I.	
1689	1643	1658	
Anne		Joseph I.	Frederick I.
1702		1705	1701
George I.	Louis XV.	Charles VI.	William I.
1714	1715	1711	1713
George II.		Charles VII. ...	Frederick II. ...
1727		1742	1740
George III.		Francis I.	
1760		1745	
	Louis XVI.	Joseph II.	
	1774	1765	
		Leopold II.	William II.
		1790	1786
	Republic	Francis II.	William III.
	1793	1792	1797

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

I. FRANCE.

FRENCH REVOLUTION (*Continued*).¹—4. THE CONSULATE (1800-04).

Austrian War (1800).—England, regarding Buonaparte as a usurper, refused to make peace, and hostilities soon began. The First Consul was eager to renew the glories of his Italian campaign. Pouring his army over the Alps, he descended upon Lombardy like an avalanche. The Austrians, however, quickly rallied from their surprise, and, unexpectedly attacking him upon the plain of *Marengo*, swept all before them. At this juncture Desaix, who with his division had hastened thither at the sound of cannon, dashed upon the advancing column, but fell in the charge. Just then, Kellerman, seeing the opportunity, hurled his terrible dragoons upon the flank of the column, and the Austrians broke and fled.

Effect.—This single battle restored northern Italy to its conqueror. Meantime General Moreau had driven back the Austrian army in Germany step by step, and now, gaining a signal victory at *Hohenlinden*, he pressed forward to the gates of the Austrian capital. The frightened monarch consented to

The Treaty of Luneville, which was nearly like that of Campo Formio. England did not make peace until the next year, when Pitt's retirement from office paved the way to the *Treaty of Amiens* (1802).

Government.—"I shall now give myself to the administration of France," said Buonaparte. The opportunity for reorganization was a rare one. Feudal shackles had been

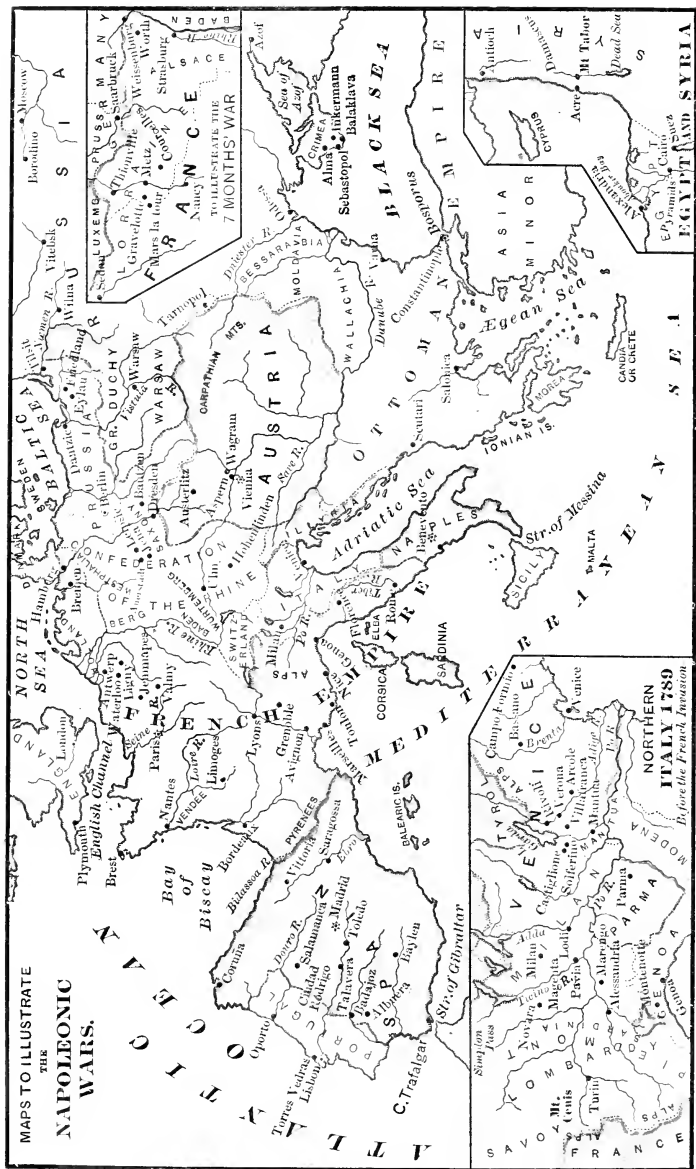
¹ The pupil will bear in mind that the FRENCH REVOLUTION, which began in 1789 (p. 232), lasted until the RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS in 1814-15, thus being the opening event of the nineteenth century.

MAPS TO ILLUSTRATE

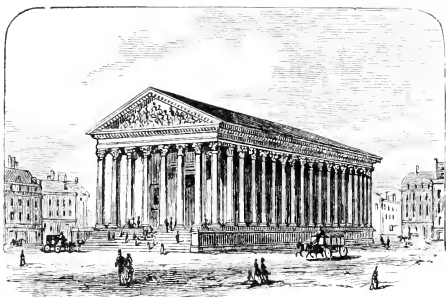
THE

NAPOLÉONIC

WARS.



thrown off, land had been set free, and the nation had perfect confidence in its brilliant leader. Commerce, agriculture, manufactures, education, religion, arts, and sciences,—each received his careful thought. He restored the Catholic Church in accordance with the celebrated Concordat (1801), whereby the Pope renounced all claim to the lands confiscated by the Revolution, and the government agreed to provide for the maintenance of the clergy. He established a uniform system of weights and measures, known as the Metric System (1801). He fused the conflicting laws into what is still called the *Napoleonic Code*. He abolished the fantastic republican calendar (1806). He erected magnificent bridges across the Seine. He created the Legion of Honor, to reward distinguished merit. He repaired old roads and built new ones, among which was the magnificent route over the Simplon Pass into Italy, even now the wonder of travelers.



THE TEMPLE OF GLORY.

FRENCH REVOLUTION (*Continued*).—5. THE EMPIRE (1804-14).

Buonaparte becomes Emperor.—So general was the confidence inspired in France by Buonaparte's administration, and so fascinated was the nation by his military achievements, that, though he recklessly violated the liberties of the people and the rights of neighboring countries, when the senate proclaimed him Emperor Napoleon I., the popular

vote ratifying it showed only twenty-five hundred noes. At the coronation Pius VII. poured on the head of the kneeling sovereign the mystic oil; but when he lifted the crown, Napoleon took it from his hands, placed it on his own head,



EMPERESS JOSEPHINE.

and afterward crowned Josephine empress. As the hymn was sung which Charlemagne heard when saluted Emperor of the Romans, the shouts within the walls of Notre Dame reached the crowd without, and all Paris rung with acclamation. Crossing the Alps, the new emperor took at Milan the iron crown of the Lombards, and his step-

son Eugene Beauharnais received the title Viceroy of Italy. The empire of Charlemagne seemed to be revived, with its seat at Paris instead of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Campaign of Austerlitz.—A *Third Coalition* (consisting of England, Austria, and Russia) was formed to resist the ambitious projects of “The Soldier of Fortune.” Napoleon, having already collected at Boulogne an admirably disciplined army and a vast fleet, threatened England. Learning that Austria had taken the field, he suddenly threw two hundred thousand men across the Rhine, surprised and captured the Austrian army at *Ulm*, and entered Vienna in triumph. Thence pressing forward, he met the Austro-Russian force, under the emperors Francis and Alexander, at the heights of

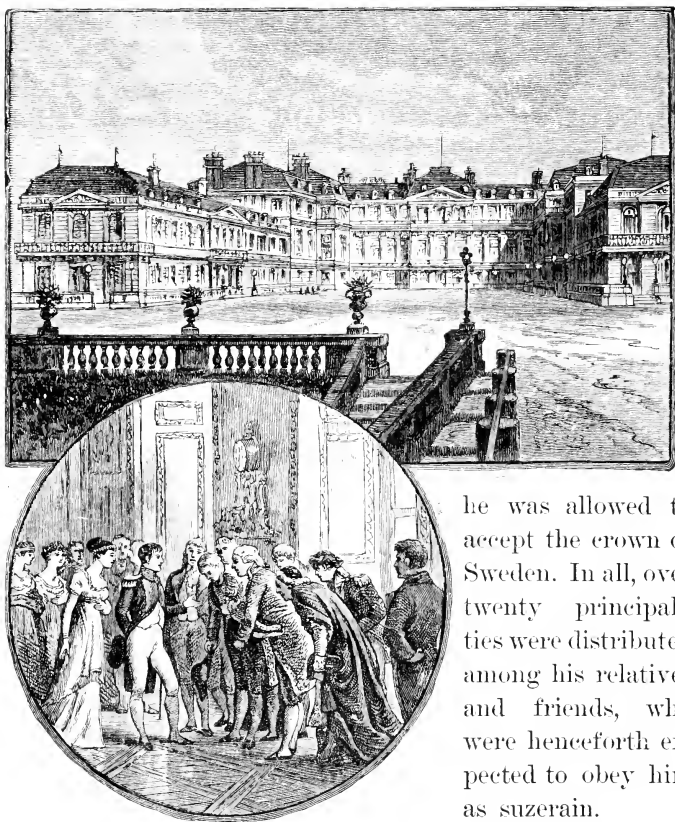
Austerlitz (1805).—With ill-concealed joy, in which his soldiers shared, he watched the allies marching their troops past the front of the French position in order to turn his right flank. Waiting until this ruinous movement was past recall, he suddenly launched his eager veterans upon the weakened center of the enemies' line, seized the plateau of Pratzen,—the key of their position,—isolated their left wing, and then cut up their entire army in detail. "The Sun of Austerlitz" saw the coalition go down in crushing defeat.¹

Treaty of Presburg.—After the "Battle of the Three Emperors," Francis came a suppliant into the conqueror's tent. He secured peace at such a cost of territory that he surrendered the title of German emperor for that of Emperor of Austria (1806). Thus ended the Holy Roman Empire, which had lasted over a thousand years (p. 69).

Battle of Trafalgar.—The day after the thunder-stroke at Ulm, Nelson, with the English squadron off Cape Trafalgar, annihilated the combined fleet of France and Spain. Henceforth Napoleon never contested with England the supremacy of the sea.

Royal Vassals.—On land, however, after Austerlitz, no one dared to resist his will. To strengthen his power, he surrounded France with fiefs, after the manner of the middle ages. Seventeen states of Germany were united in the Confederation of the Rhine, in close alliance with him. His brother Louis received the kingdom of Holland; Jerome, that of Westphalia; and Joseph, that of Naples. His brother-in-law Murat was assigned the grandduchy of Berg; Marshal Berthier, the province of Neuchâtel; and Talleyrand, that of Benevento. Bernadotte was given Pontecorvo, but later

¹ When Pitt received the news of Austerlitz, he exclaimed, "Roll up the map of Europe: it will not be wanted these ten years." Then, falling into a dying stupor, he awoke only to murmur, "Alas, my country!"



NAPOLEON AND JOSEPHINE AT ST. CLOUD.

he was allowed to accept the crown of Sweden. In all, over twenty principalities were distributed among his relatives and friends, who were henceforth expected to obey him as suzerain.

War with Prussia (1806).—Prus-

sia's humiliation was to come next. A *Fourth Coalition* (Prussia, Russia, England, etc.) had now been formed against France, but the Grand Army was still in Germany, and, before the Prussians could prepare for war, Napoleon burst upon them. In one day he annihilated their army at *Jena* and *Auerstadt*, and thus, by a single dreadful blow, laid the country prostrate at his feet. Amid the

tears of the people, he entered Berlin, levied enormous contributions,¹ plundered the museums, and even rifled the tomb of Frederick the Great.

Berlin Decrees (1806).—Unable to meet England on the ocean, Napoleon determined to destroy her commerce, and issued at Berlin the famous decrees prohibiting British trade.² The Continental System, as it was called, was, however, a failure. Napoleon had no navy to enforce it, and English goods were smuggled wherever a British vessel could float. It is said that Manchester prints were worn even in the Tuileries.

War with Russia (1807).—Napoleon next hastened into Poland to meet the Russian army. The bloody battle of *Eylau*, fought amid blinding snow, was indecisive, but the victory of *Friedland* forced Alexander to sue for peace. The two emperors met upon a raft in the river Niemen. By the Treaty of Tilsit, they agreed to support each other in their ambitious schemes.

Peninsular War.—Napoleon sought, also, to make Spain and Portugal subject to France. On the plea of enforcing the Continental System, Junot was sent into Portugal, whereupon the royal family fled to Brazil. The

¹ To raise the amount, the women gave up their ornaments, and wore rings of Berlin iron,—since then noted in the patriotic annals of Prussia. “This country furnishes a curious and perhaps unique example of a despotic monarchy forced by a despotism stronger than itself to seek defense in secret association. When Prussia lay crushed under the merciless tyranny of Napoleon, Baron Stein, the prime minister, bethought him how he could rouse the German spirit and unite the country against the invader. He devised the *Tugendbund*, or League of Virtue (1807), which spread rapidly over the country, and soon numbered in its ranks the flower of the people, including the very highest rank. Its organization and discipline were perfect, and its authority was unbounded, although the source was veiled in the deepest secrecy. One of the motives by which Stein kindled to white-heat the enthusiasm of the people was the hope of representative institutions and a free press; but the king did not hesitate to violate his royal promise when its purpose was served. The *Tugendbund* contributed powerfully to the resurrection of German national life in 1813, and to the overthrow of Napoleon.”

² They made smuggling a capital offense. A man was shot at Hamburg merely for having a little sugar in his house.

imbecile King of Spain being induced to abdicate, the Spanish crown was placed upon the head of Napoleon's brother Joseph, while Naples was transferred to Murat.

But Spain rebelled against the hated intruder. The entire kingdom blazed with fanatic devotion. More Frenchmen perished by the knife of the assassin than by the bullet of the soldier. Joseph kept his ill-gotten throne only eight days. The English, who now for the first time fought Napoleon on land, crossed into Portugal, and Sir Arthur Wellesley quickly expelled the French.

Napoleon was forced to come to the rescue with the Grand Army. By three great battles he reached Madrid and replaced Joseph upon the throne, while Marshal Soult pursued the English army to the sea, where it took ship for home.¹

War with Austria (1809).—A *Fifth Coalition* (England, Austria, Spain, and Portugal) having been organized to stay the progress of France, Austria took advantage of the absence of the Grand Army in Spain, and opened a new campaign. Napoleon hurried across the Rhine, and in five days captured sixty thousand prisoners, and drove the Austrians over the Danube.

Battles of Aspern and Wagram.—But while the French were crossing the river in pursuit, the Austrian army fell upon them with terrible desperation. During the struggle the village of Aspern was taken and retaken fourteen times. Napoleon was forced to retreat. He at once summoned reinforcements from all parts of his vast dominions, and, recrossing the stream in the midst of a wild thunderstorm,

¹ The gallant Sir John Moore, then in command, was mortally wounded just before the embarkation. His body, wrapped in his military cloak, was hastily buried on the ramparts,

“By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.”—*Wolfe's Ode*.

defeated the Austrians on the plain of *Wagram*, and imposed the humiliating

Peace of Vienna.—It exacted a large territory, a money-indemnity, adherence to the Continental System, and the blowing-up of the walls of Vienna, the favorite promenade of its citizens.



THE BATTLE OF WAGRAM.

The treaty was cemented by marriage. Napoleon divorced Josephine, and married Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis. But this alliance of the Soldier of the Revolution with the proud House of Hapsburg was distasteful to the other crowned heads of Europe, and unpopular in France.

War in Spain (1809-12).—During the campaign in Austria, over three hundred thousand French soldiers were in

Spain, but Napoleon was not there. Jealousies and the difficulties of a guerilla warfare prevented success. Wellesley crossed the Douro in the face of Marshal Soult, and at last drove him out of the country.¹ Joining the Spaniards, Wellesley then defeated Joseph in the great battle of *Talavera*; but Soult, Ney, and Mortier having come up, he retreated into Portugal.

The next year he fell back before the superior forces of Masséna into the fortified lines of *Torres Vedras*. Masséna remained in front of this impregnable position until starvation forced him to retire into Spain. His watchful antagonist instantly followed him, and it was only by consummate skill that the French captain escaped with the wreck of his army. The victories of *Albuera* and *Salamanca*, and the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, cost the French the peninsula south of Madrid. Joseph's throne was held up on the point of French bayonets.

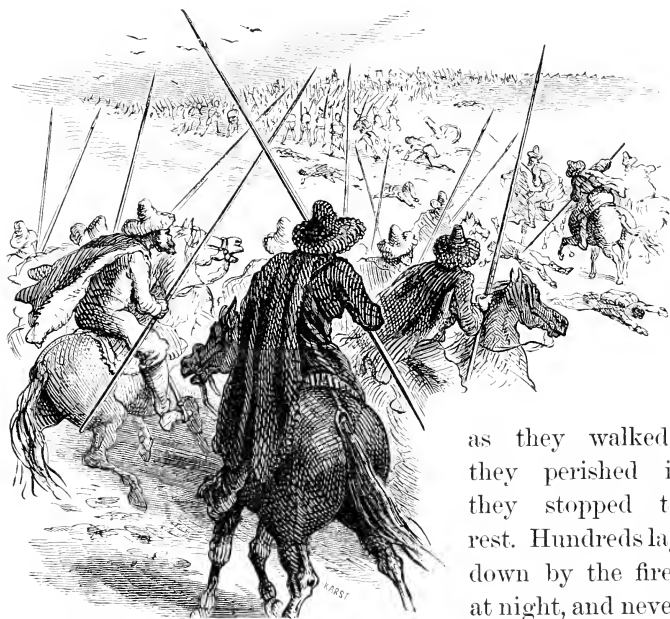
Russian Campaign (1812).—As the emperor Alexander refused to carry out the Continental System, Napoleon invaded that country with a vast army of over half a million men. But as he advanced, the Russians retired, destroying the crops and burning the villages. No longer could he make war support war. By incredible exertions, however, he pushed forward, won the bloody battle of *Borodino*, and finally entered Moscow.

But the inhabitants had deserted the city, and the next night the Russians fired it in a thousand places. The blackened ruins furnished no shelter from the northern winter then fast approaching. Famine was already making

¹ Napoleon was accustomed to mass his men in a tremendous column of attack that crushed down all opposition. Wellesley (now better known as the Duke of Wellington) believed that the English troops in thin line of battle could resist this fearful onset. In the end, as we shall see (p. 267), Wellington's tactics proved superior to those of Napoleon.

sad havoc in the invader's ranks. The czar refused peace. Napoleon had no alternative but to retire.

Retreat from Moscow.—The mercury suddenly fell to zero. The soldiers, unused to the rigors of the climate, sank



COSSACKS HARASSING THE RETREATING ARMY.

as they walked; they perished if they stopped to rest. Hundreds lay down by the fires at night, and never rose in the morning. Wild Cossack

troopers hovered about the rear, and, hidden by the gusts of snow, dashed down upon the blinded column, and with their long lances pierced far into the line; then, ere the French with their stiffened fingers could raise a musket, the Tartars, dropping at full length on the backs of their ponies, vanished in the falling sleet. Napoleon finally gave up the command to Murat, and set off for Paris. All idea

of discipline was now lost. The army rapidly dissolved into a mass of straggling fugitives.

Uprising of Europe (1813).—"The flames of Moscow were the funeral pyre of the empire." The yoke of the arrogant usurper was thrown off on every hand when Europe saw a hope of deliverance.

A Sixth Confederation (Russia, Prussia, England, and Sweden) against French domination was quickly formed. Napoleon raised a new army of conscripts which defeated the allies at *Lützen*,¹ *Bautzen*, and *Dresden*. But where he was absent was failure; while Wellington, flushed with victory in Spain, crossed the Bidassoa, and set foot on French soil. And now Napoleon himself, in the terrible "Battle of the Nations," was routed under the walls of *Leipsic*. Fleeing back to Paris, he collected a handful of men for the final struggle.

Invasion of France (1814).—Nearly a million of foes swarmed into France on all sides. Never did Napoleon display such genius, such profound combinations, such fertility of resource. Striking, now here and now there, he held them back for a time; but making a false move to the rear of the Austrian army, the allies ventured forward and captured Paris. The fickle Parisians received them with delight. The people were weary of this hopeless butchery.

Abdication of Napoleon.—Meanwhile Napoleon was breathlessly hastening to the defense of his capital. When only ten miles off, he received the fatal news. There was no hope of resistance, and he agreed to abdicate his throne. In the court of the palace at Fontainebleau he bade the veterans of the Old Guard an affecting adieu, and then set out for the Island of Elba, which had been assigned as his residence.

¹ A battle-field already famed for the death of Gustavus Adolphus (p. 177).

1. THE RESTORATION (1814).

Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., was placed upon the throne. France resumed very nearly the boundaries of 1792. The Bourbons, however, had “learned nothing, forgotten nothing.” The nobles talked of reclaiming their feudal rights, and looked with insolent contempt upon the upstarts who had followed the fortunes of the Corsican adventurer. No wonder that people’s thoughts again turned



NAPOLEON'S PARTING WITH THE OLD GUARD AT FONTAINEBLEAU.

toward Napoleon. Soon men spoke mysteriously of a certain Corporal Violet who would come with the flowers of spring; and violets bloomed significantly on ladies' hats.

The Hundred Days (March 20–June 22, 1815).—Suddenly the mystery was explained. Napoleon returned to France and hastened toward Paris. At Grenoble he met a body of troops drawn up to bar his advance. Wearing his

familiar gray coat and cocked hat, Napoleon advanced alone in front of the line, and exclaimed, "Soldiers, if there be one among you who would kill his emperor, here he is." The men dropped their arms and shouted, "*Vive l'Empereur!*"¹ Ney had promised "to bring back the Corsican to Paris in an iron cage." But when he saw the colors under which he had fought, and heard the shouts of the men he had so often led to battle, he forgot all else, and threw himself into the arms of Napoleon.

Louis XVIII. fled in haste, and the restored government of the Bourbons melted into thin air.

The *Vienna Congress* of European powers, called to readjust national boundaries, was in session when news came of Napoleon's return. The coalition (p. 264) was at once renewed, and the allied troops again took the field.

Battle of Waterloo (1815).—Napoleon quickly assembled an army and hastened into Belgium, hoping to defeat the English and Prussian armies before the others arrived. Detaching Grouchy with 34,000 men to hold Blücher and the Prussians in check, he turned to attack the English. Near Brussels he met Wellington. Each general had about seventy-five thousand men. Napoleon opened the battle with a feigned but fierce attack on the Château of Hougoumont on the British right. Then, under cover of a tremendous artillery-fire, he massed a heavy column against the center. La Haye Sainte—a farmhouse in front of Wellington's line—was taken, and the cavalry streamed up the heights beyond. The English threw themselves into squares, upon which the French cuirasseurs dashed with the utmost fury. For five hours they charged up to the very muzzles of the British

¹ When Colonel Labédoyère joined him with his regiment, each soldier took from the bottom of his knapsack the tricolored cockade, which he had carefully hidden for ten months.

guns. English tenacity struggled with French enthusiasm. Wellington, momentarily consulting his watch, longed for night or Blücher. Napoleon hurried messenger after messenger to recall Grouchy to his help. Just at evening, Ney with the Old and the Young Guard made a last effort. These veterans, whose presence had decided so many battles, swept to the top of the slope. The British Guards who were lying down behind the crest rose and poured in a deadly fire. The English converged from all sides. Suddenly cannonading was heard on the extreme French right. "It is Grouchy," cried the soldiers. It was Blücher's masses carrying all before them. The terrible "*saure qui peut*" (save himself who can) arose. Whole ranks of the French melted away. "All is lost," shouted Napoleon, and, putting spurs to his horse, he fled from the field.

Second Abdication.—Having abdicated the throne a second time, Napoleon went on board the British ship *Bellerophon*, and surrendered. In order to prevent him from again troubling the peace, England imprisoned him upon the Island of St. Helena. The long wars of the French Revolution which had convulsed Europe since 1792 were at length ended.

Napoleon's Fate.—The Corsican Adventurer dragged out the remainder of his life in recalling the glories of his past, and complaining of the annoyances of the present. On the evening of May 5, 1821, there was a fearful storm of wind and rain, in the midst of which, as in the case of Cromwell, the soul of the warrior went to its final account. The tempest seemed to recall to his wandering mind the roar of battle, and his last words were, "*Tête d'armée*" (head of the army). He was buried near his favorite resort,—a fountain shaded by weeping willows. In his will was a request that his "body might repose on the banks of the Seine, among the people he had loved so well." During the reign of Louis Philippe, his remains were carried to Paris, and laid beneath a magnificent mausoleum connected with the Hotel des Invalides. "The body had been so skillfully embalmed that nineteen years of death had not effaced



TOMB OF NAPOLEON AT ST. HELENA.

the expression of the well-remembered features. Men looked once more with reverence and pity upon the almost unchanged countenance of him who had been the glory and the scourge of his age."

Napoleon's Opportunity was a rare one, but he ingloriously missed it. At several stages in his career—probably after Marengo, at all events after Austerlitz—he had it within his reach to found one of the most powerful and compact

kingdoms in the world. He might have been emperor of a France bounded by the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Rhine, with by far the greatest military strength in Europe. Within this splendid territory he might have established a moral and intellectual power. But his double-dealing, his project of parceling out Europe among his kindred and dependants, and the folly of the Austrian marriage, the Spanish war, and the Russian campaign,—all illustrated his lack of wisdom, and wrecked his throne.

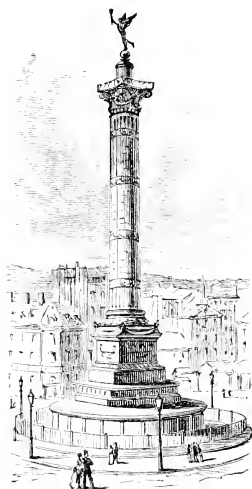
"**Napoleon's Mission,**" says Bryce, "was to break up in Germany and Italy the abominable system of petty states, to re-awaken the spirit of the people, to sweep away the relics of an effete feudalism, and leave the ground clear for the growth of newer and better forms of political life." He was as despotic as the kings whom he unseated. During nineteen years of almost constant war he inflicted upon Europe the most appalling miseries. Yet out of the fearful evils of his life came the ultimate good of humanity. Even the hatred evoked by his despotism, and the patriotic efforts demanded to overthrow his power, taught the nations to know their strength. To the Napoleonic rule, Germany and Italy date back the first glimpses and possibilities of united national life.

Second Restoration.—Louis XVIII. now reoccupied his throne. France, in her turn, was forced to submit to a humiliating peace. The Congress of Vienna imposed an indemnity of seven hundred million francs, a loss of terri-

tory having a population of twenty-five hundred thousand persons, and the occupation of the French frontier by a foreign army for five years.¹ Louis now resisted the ultra-royalists, and prudently sought to establish a limited monarchy, with a chamber of peers and one of deputies, based upon a restricted suffrage. His brother succeeded to the crown.

Charles X. (1824–30) was bent on restoring the Bourbon despotism. His usurpations led to the "*Revolution of the Three Days of July, 1830.*" Once more the pavements of Paris were torn up for barricades. La Fayette again appeared on the scene, waving the tricolored flag.² The palace of the Tuileries was sacked. Charles fled. The Chambers elected his cousin, the Duke of Orleans, as "King of the French," thus repudiating the doctrine of the "divine right of kings."

The House of Orleans.—*Louis Philippe* (1830–48), the "Citizen King," who now received the crown, at first won the good-will of the nation by his charming family-life, and his earnest efforts to rule as a constitutional monarch. But there were many conflicting parties,—the *Bourbonists*, who



COLUMN OF JULY.

¹ The allies returned to their owners the treasures of art Napoleon had pillaged. "The bronze horses from Corinth resumed their old place on the portico of the Church of St. Mark in Venice; the Transfiguration was restored to the Vatican; the Apollo Belvidere and the Laocoön again adorned St. Peter's; the Venus de' Medici was enshrined with new beauty at Florence; and the Descent from the Cross was replaced in the Cathedral of Antwerp."—*Lord's Modern Europe.*

² The blue and red were the colors of Paris; to these La Fayette added (1789) the Bourbon color, white, to form a cockade for the National Guards. This was the origin of the famous French "tricolor."

sustained the grandson of Charles X. (Comte de Chambord, or "Henry V."); the *Bonapartists*, who remembered Napoleon's successes, and not the misery he had caused; the *Orleanists*, who supported the constitutional monarchy; the *Republicans*, who wished for a republic; and the *Red* or *Radical Republicans*, who had adopted socialistic doctrines. The favorite motto was, "Liberty, Equality, and Frater-



LANCERS CLEARING THE BOULEVARDS OF PARIS.

nity." Political clubs fomented disorder. Amid these complications, the king's popularity waned. His policy of "peace at any price," and his selfish ambition in seeking donations and royal alliances for his family, aroused general contempt. Finally a popular demand for an extension of the franchise found expression in certain "Reform Banquets." An attempt to suppress one of these meetings at Paris precipitated



PROCLAMATION OF THE REPUBLIC.

The Revolution of 1848.—Barricades sprung up as by magic. The red flag was unfurled. The National Guards fraternized with the rabble. Louis Philippe lost heart, and, assuming the name of Smith, fled to England. A republic

was again proclaimed. France, as usual, followed the lead of Paris.¹

2. THE SECOND REPUBLIC (1848-52).

The Paris Mob, though it had established a republic, really wanted equality of money rather than of rights. The Socialists taught that government should provide work and wages for every one. To meet the demand, national workshops were established; but, when these proved an evil and were closed, the Reds organized an outbreak. For three days a fearful fight raged in the streets of Paris. Order was at last restored at a cost of five thousand lives.

Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon I., was then chosen president of the new republic. Before his four-years' term of office had expired, he plotted, by the help of the army, a *coup d'état* (1851). His very audacity won the day. The Chamber of Deputies was dissolved; his opponents were imprisoned; and he was elected president for ten years.

As, fifty years before, the Consulate gave place to the Empire, so now the Second Republic was soon merged in the Second Empire. In 1852 the president assumed the title of emperor. Again the popular vote approved the overthrow of the republic, and Napoleon's violation of the constitution he had sworn to support.

3. THE SECOND EMPIRE (1852-70).

Napoleon III. modeled his domestic policy after that of Napoleon I. He relied on the army for support, and centralized all authority. He improved Paris by widening its streets and removing old buildings. He reorganized the army and navy; extended railroads; encouraged agricul-

¹ At this time the provinces complained that they "had to receive their revolutions by mail from Paris." In our day, Paris is no longer France; and the rural population has become a power in politics.



STREET PLACARDS ANNOUNCING THE COUP D'ETAT.



ture; and dazzled men's eyes by the glitter of a brilliant court. In 1867, when a World's Fair was held in Paris, visitors were impressed by the evidences of a wonderful material prosperity.

At his ascension, Napoleon announced his policy in the words, "The empire is peace." Yet four wars characterized his reign,—the *Crimean* (p. 280), the *Italian* (p. 288), the *Mexican* (U. S. Hist., p. 248), and the *German*. The first brought him great glory; the last revealed the inherent weakness of the Napoleonic administration, and caused the emperor's downfall.

The Franco-Prussian War (1870-71).—The time-honored policy of France was to perpetuate German divisions in order to weaken that nation. Of late there had

been an especial jealousy between France and Prussia. The former was distrustful of Prussia's growing power, and the latter was eager to avenge Jena and recover the Rhine. A proposal of the Spaniards to bestow their crown upon a kinsman of the King of Prussia was resented by France, and out of it finally grew an excuse to declare war.

Invasion of France.—The French troops left Paris to the cry of "On to Berlin," but they never crossed the Rhine. The soldiers had no respect for their commanders, and lacked discipline and confidence. The generals were ignorant of the country and the position of the enemy. The Prussian trooper knew more of the French roads than many an imperial officer. The German armies, by their superior discipline and overwhelming numbers, crushed all opposition. Victories followed fast, at *Weissenburg*, *Wörth*, *Courcelles*, *Thionville*, and *Gravelotte*. Napoleon himself surrendered at *Sedan* with eighty thousand men, and Marshal Bazaine at *Metz* with one hundred and eighty thousand.

When the news of Sedan reached Paris, the people turned their wrath upon Napoleon and his family. The empress Eugénie fled to England,¹ and the empire was at an end. The conquerors now closed in upon Paris, and, after a siege of over four months, the city surrendered.

4. THE THIRD REPUBLIC (1871 TO THE PRESENT TIME).

The Republic.—The Germans having granted a three-weeks' truce that the French might vote for a new government, an Assembly was chosen by the people. Thiers was elected president of the new republic. But peace was purchased only by the cession of Alsace and part of Lorraine, and a penalty of five billion francs. Thus Strasburg, taken by Louis XIV., and Metz, by Henry II., were lost, and

¹ The emperor died there in exile (1873); his son, the prince imperial, fell as a volunteer in the Zulu War (1879).

France itself, which in 1814 had been conquered only by all Europe, lay at the mercy of one nation. Jena and the cruel indignities which the first Napoleon had inflicted on Germany were sadly expiated.

The Commune (1871).—While a German army was yet at hand, the indemnity unpaid, and the country devastated by war, the Parisian rabble inaugurated a second reign of terror. Barricades were thrown up, the red flag—symbol of anarchy—was unfurled, and a Commune was established at the Hôtel de Ville. The Assembly met at Versailles and collected troops. Then ensued a second siege of Paris more disastrous than the first. The Communists, defeated at all points, laid trains of petroleum, and destroyed the Tuileries, the Hôtel de Ville, and many of the finest public buildings. This fearful ruin was as useless as it was vindictive.

The Assembly, having triumphed, assumed the difficult task of government. The administration of Thiers was singularly successful, and the payment of the war penalty within two years excited the wonder of the world. The French ascribed Germany's success to her public schools, and so primary education became one of the foundations of the young republic. The army was also remodeled on the German plan, and it is said that twenty-four hundred thousand men could now be put in the field.



A FEMALE COMMUNIST.



BARRICADING THE STREETS OF PARIS.

In 1899 the French President was Émile Loubet, the sixth after Thiers, who resigned in 1873.

II. ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF HANOVER (*Continued*).

The English Monarchs of the nineteenth century are as follows: *George IV.* (1820–30), owing to the insanity of his father, ruled for nine years as regent. Though styled the “First Gentleman of Europe” for his courtly manners and exquisite dress, he was selfish as Charles I., and profligate as Charles II. *William IV.* (1830–37), brother of George IV., having seen service in the navy, was known as the “Sailor King.” His warm heart, open hand, and common sense won the love of England. *Victoria* (1837– —), niece of William IV., ascended the throne at the age of eighteen.¹ Her reign has proved a blessing to the world. All England has felt the benediction of her pure life and her Christian example, as queen, wife, and mother.

State of the Country.—The long wars of the French Revolution left England burdened with a debt of four billion dollars. The condition of the common people was miserable. Wages were low, and the Corn Laws, imposing a heavy duty on foreign grain, made the price of food very high. Suffrage was limited; there was no system of public education; and the laws were unequal. Thousands of disbanded soldiers and sailors vainly sought for work. Bands of discharged laborers roamed through the country, breaking the lace and stocking frames which had taken from them their employment. Incendiary fires lighted the evening sky. Everywhere men’s minds were astir with a sense of injustice and a need of political privileges. But it is noticeable, that, while in France improvement came only by revolution, in England wrongs were righted by peaceable reform.

Reforms.—The Test Act (p. 202) was repealed in 1828, and the next year Catholics were granted, with a few excep-

¹ Hanover was then severed from the British Empire by the Salic law (p. 226).

tions, equal rights with their Protestant fellow-citizens. The First Reform Bill (1832), proposed by Lord John Russell, extended the franchise, abolished many rotten boroughs,¹ and empowered the large towns to send members to Parliament. The Negro Emancipation Bill (1833), passed chiefly through the philanthropic efforts of William Wilberforce, suppressed slavery throughout the British Empire.

The Chartists, principally workingmen, were so called from a document termed the People's Charter, in which they demanded six changes in the constitution: viz., (1) universal suffrage; (2) vote by ballot; (3) annual Parliaments; (4) payment of members of Parliament; (5) abolition of property qualification for a seat in the House; and (6) equal electoral districts. In 1848—that year of revolution over the Con-

¹ Cities, like Manchester and Leeds, then sent no members to Parliament, while some little villages had two members apiece. The great landowners dictated to their tenants the proper candidate. There were many "pocket or rotten boroughs" having seats in Parliament, yet without house or inhabitant. One of these was a ruined wall in a gentleman's park; another was under the sea. "So utterly were the people excluded from any part in politics, that for twenty years there had not been in Edinburgh any public meeting of a political character."

"During the eighteenth century, the Irish Parliament, composed of Protestants of an exceedingly bitter type, had heaped upon the unhappy Catholics of Ireland an accumulation of the most wicked laws which have ever been expressed in the English tongue. A Catholic could not sit in Parliament, could not hold any office under the crown, could not vote at an election, could not be a solicitor, or a physician, or a sheriff, or a gamekeeper. If his son became a Protestant, he was withdrawn from paternal custody and intrusted to Protestant relatives, with a suitable provision by the father for his maintenance. A Catholic was not permitted to own a horse of greater value than five pounds. If he used a more reputable animal, he was bound to sell it for that sum to any Protestant who was disposed to buy. If a younger brother turned Protestant, he supplanted the elder in his birthright. A Catholic could not inherit from an intestate relative, however near. A Protestant solicitor who married a Catholic was disqualified from following his profession. Marriages of Protestants and Catholics, if performed by a priest, were annulled, and the priest was liable to be hanged. In the early part of the century, a Catholic who was so daring as to enter the gallery of the House of Commons was liable to arrest."—*Mackenzie's Nineteenth Century*. Many of these pitiable laws were abolished in the century that gave them birth; others would have been annulled after the Union in 1801, had it not been for the violent opposition of George IV., supported by Mr. Peel and the Duke of Wellington. The Irish patriot, Daniel O'Connell, roused the country, and hastened an era of reform. In 1782, under the lead of the eloquent Henry Grattan, Ireland obtained an independent Parliament,—an advantage lost again in 1801. The question of Irish home rule was involved in several parliamentary elections. In 1898 an act was passed securing local self-government for Ireland.

tinent—the Chartists mustered on Kennington Common, intending to march through London to the House of Commons, to present a monster petition (said to contain five million signatures), and compel an assent to their demands. The government appealed to the citizens, and 200,000 volunteered¹ as special constables. This remarkable display of public opinion quelled the movement. The Chartists disbanded, but the agitation bore fruit, and most of the reforms have since been granted. It was a contest for political power, but with it came one for cheap bread.

An Anti-Corn-Law League was formed in Manchester (1839), having branches throughout the kingdom. At the head of this agitation were Richard Cobden and John Bright. They held the doctrine of free trade,—that every man should be free to buy in the cheapest market and to sell in the dearest, without restriction. On the other hand, the Protectionists claimed that high duties, by keeping up prices, defended home industries against foreign competition. In the midst of the discussion, the potato crop of Ireland failed, and the famine in that country (1846) forced Robert Peel, the leader of the Conservatives in Parliament, to introduce a bill abolishing duties upon grain, cattle, etc. This repeal came into operation in 1849.

The First Locomotive.—The year 1830 is memorable for the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, upon which passenger-cars were drawn by a locomotive-engine,—the invention of George Stephenson.

Cheap Postage.—A young man named Rowland Hill brought forward the idea of penny postage. The scheme was laughed at, but it became a law in 1840.²

¹ One of these volunteers was Louis Napoleon, then an exile in England, but chosen the next year as president of the French Republic (p. 272).

² Walter Scott tells us that in his day the mail from Edinburgh to London often contained only a single letter, the postage being thirty-two cents.

The First World's Fair (1851) was held at London in the Crystal Palace, then a novel structure of iron and glass, covering about nineteen acres of ground. Prince Albert, the royal consort, fostered this exhibition, which gave a new impetus to English art industries.

Crimean War (1854).—The emperor Nicholas of Russia, anxious to seize the spoil of the “sick man,” as Turkey was called, took possession of some provinces on the Danube, under the pretext of supporting the claims of the Greek Christians to certain holy places in Jerusalem. England and France aided the sultan. An allied army, seventy thousand strong, was landed in the Crimea. The victory of the *Alma* enabled the troops to advance upon Sebastopol, a fortified city which commanded the Black Sea, and in whose harbor lay the fleet which menaced Constantinople and the Bosphorus. The siege lasted nearly a year. Innumerable combats, two desperate battles (*Balaklava*¹ and *Inkerman*), incessant guard by day and night, hard labor in the trenches, and an unhealthy climate, tried the valor of the French and the constancy of the English.² Finally the French stormed the Malakoff redoubt, and the Russians evacuated the city. When the conquerors entered, they found such ruin, flame, and devastation as greeted Napoleon in the streets of Moscow.

By the *Treaty of Paris* (1856), the czar agreed to abandon his protectorate over the Danubian provinces; the navigation of the Danube was made free; and Russia was allowed only police vessels of war on the Black Sea.³

Indian Mutiny (1857).—The sepoys, or native soldiers in the English service in India, revolted because their car-

¹ This battle is famous for the charge of the Six Hundred so graphically described in Tennyson's popular poem, “The Charge of the Light Brigade.”

² In this war Florence Nightingale won her renown as an army nurse.

³ In 1870 Russia abrogated this restriction.

bridges were said to be greased with tallow or lard.¹ The white residents at Delhi, Cawnpore, and other points, were massacred with horrible barbarity. The Europeans at Lucknow held out against Nana Sahib until reënforced by General Havelock, who defended the city while Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde) and his Highlanders came to the rescue. The rebellion was finally crushed, and the East India Company (1859) transferred the government of India to the queen, who in 1876 was made Empress of India.

Cotton Famine.—Our civil war cut off the supply of cotton, so that everywhere factory operatives were either thrown out of employment or worked only half-time. The workingmen, who were generally Liberals, sympathized with the war for the Union, and patiently bore hunger and want, in devotion to their principles.

Recent Events.—In 1878, England, under Disraeli's lead, checked Russia's plan to seize Constantinople, and received from Turkey the Island of Cyprus. In 1882 an expedition was made to suppress an Egyptian insurrection and protect English interests in the Suez. In 1885 a Soudanese rebellion, led by Mah'di (dee), a false prophet, attacked the English garrison at Khartoum, and General Gordon was killed. Dissatisfaction with the course of the ministry in this matter led to the retirement of Mr. Gladstone's cabinet. In 1891 Mr. Parnell was deposed from the leadership of the Irish Home Rule party. The Soudan was recovered in 1898 (p. 298), while Lord Salisbury was prime minister.

Recent Reforms.—In 1867 a Reform Bill, carried by the Conservatives, under the leadership of Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli, granted a franchise which amounts very nearly to household suffrage. In 1869, under Mr. Gladstone's ad-

¹ They regarded this as an insult to their religion, since a Hindoo may not touch cow's fat, or a Mohammedan lard.

ministration, a bill was carried for the disestablishment and disendowment of the Established Church in Ireland, where the Catholics are the majority of the population. In 1870 education was made compulsory, school boards were established in every district, and the support of schools was provided for by taxation. In 1870, and again in 1881, bills were adopted regulating tenant-rights in Ireland. In 1871 all religious tests for admission to office or degrees in the universities were abolished. In 1872 voting by ballot was introduced. In 1889 elementary education was made free in Scotland. In 1890 physical culture, manual training, and kindergarten methods, were introduced in schools.

III. GERMANY.

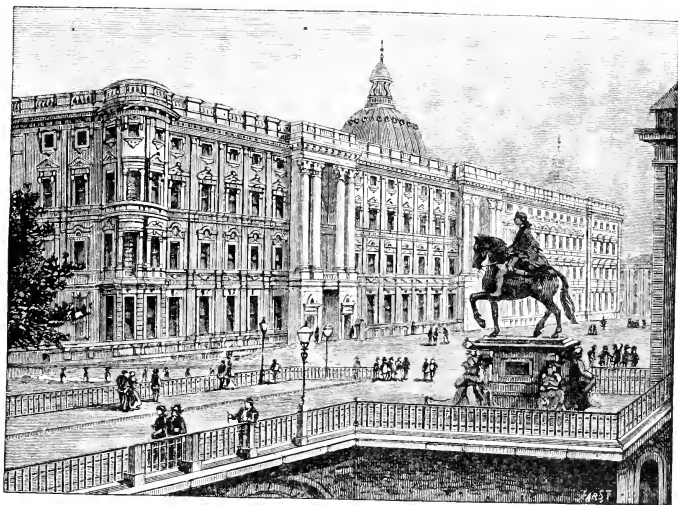
Germanic Confederation.—The Holy Roman Empire came to an end in 1806, 1006 years after Pope Leo crowned Charlemagne at Rome. After Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo, it was hoped that the ancient empire would be restored; the patriotic struggle for liberty had welded the petty nationalities, and the people did not wish their restoration. But, instead, the Congress of Vienna (p. 266) formed a German Confederation of thirty-nine states. A permanent diet was to sit at Frankfort-on-Main, Austria having the presidency.

Prussia, through the liberality of the Congress of Vienna, received back all the territory she had lost by the confiscations of Napoleon, and, in addition, Swedish Pomerania, the Rhinelands, and a part of Saxony. She was once more a great power, with an area of one hundred thousand square miles and a population of ten million people.

The Holy Alliance (1815).—The sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, after their triumph in 1815, formed a compact, agreeing "to regulate their conduct by the precepts of the Gospel," and also, as is generally believed from their

subsequent conduct, to aid one another in suppressing the principles of liberty aroused by the French Revolution.

The Demand for Freedom and Unity.—The princes in the Confederation promised to grant constitutions, but most of them forgot the agreement (p. 259, note). They generally opposed union, and sought to crush its rising spirit in the universities. The questions of liberty and union were so blended, however, that in many minds the only thought was which should first be secured. Quite a step was



THE ROYAL PALACE AT BERLIN.

taken by Prussia's gradually becoming, after 1828, the center of the *Zollverein*, a commercial union between the German states which agreed to levy customs at a common frontier.

The Revolution of 1848 in France roused the Germans anew to demand "freedom of speech, liberty of the press, and a constitutional government." The Teutonic love of freedom blazed forth in all the great cities. Various im-

portant reforms had been instituted in Prussia, but the people were not satisfied. A conflict broke out in the streets of Berlin, and several persons were killed; whereupon, Frederick William IV. (table, p. 220) put himself forward as the leader of the movement for German unity; the army stood firm for the Crown; finally a new constitution with a limited suffrage was granted, and order was reëstablished.



PORTRAIT OF COUNT BISMARCK.

In Austria, on the contrary, repression and arbitrary measures had been adopted, through the influence of Prince Metternich,—the avowed friend of despotism. At Vienna, an uprising, headed by the students, drove Metternich into exile, and such was the confusion that the emperor Ferdinand sought safety in flight.¹ The excesses of the revolutionists, however, destroyed all hope of success. Ferdinand now abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph.

In Hungary the insurrection was more serious. Kossuth was the soul of the revolution. Austria was finally obliged to call in the Russians. An Austro-Russian army of four hundred thousand, under the infamous Haynau (known in history as the “Hangman”), entered Hungary and wreaked

¹ “I want obedient subjects,” said the emperor to the students at Laybach, “and not men of learning.”

its vengeance on the hapless patriots. The surrender of the leader Görgey, with his entire army, ended the fruitless struggle. Kossuth gave himself up to the Turks; he lay in prison until 1851, when he was set free by the intervention of the United States and England.

War with Denmark (1864).—Bismarck, the Prussian minister, induced Austria to join Prussia in wresting from Denmark the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. The division of the easily acquired plunder caused renewed bitterness between the two rival countries.

Seven-Weeks' War (1866).—The jealousy between Prussia and Austria for the leadership in Germany was thus increased, and Bismarck openly declared that it could be settled only by "blood and iron." Excuses were easily found, and in 1866 Prussia and Italy declared war against Austria. The Austrians won in Italy, but the Prussians—armed with the new needle-gun, and led by the great Von Moltke—routed them at *Sadowa*,¹ and conquered the *Peace of Prague*. Austria was forever shut out of Germany, besides paying a large sum for war expenses.

¹ When the king and the crown prince met on the field after the battle, the army struck up the same old choral hymn, "Now let all hearts thank God," that the troops of Frederick the Great sang after the victory of Leuthen (p. 224).



PORTRAIT OF WILLIAM, KING OF PRUSSIA.

The North German Confederation.—The northern states were now joined, with a common constitution and assembly, under the presidency of Prussia, whose territory was enlarged by annexations. The South German states—Baden, Bavaria, and Württemberg—remained independent.

Union of Germany.—When the French war broke out, the South German states joined Prussia, and the crown prince commanded a united army of over a million men. The enthusiasm of the struggle developed the national sentiment. With victory came a fresh desire for union. Finally, during the siege of Paris, in the Palace of Versailles, King William was proclaimed Emperor of Germany (1871). *Germany* at last meant something more than “a mere geographical expression.” William I. was succeeded in 1888 by his son Frederick, who survived him only three months. The crown then fell to William II. Bismarck was displaced from office in 1890, and died in 1898.

Austria-Hungary.—After the Seven-Weeks’ War, Austria granted the long-needed reforms. Hungary received a constitution, and in 1867, Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria, was crowned King of Hungary, under its constitution. Since then Hungary and Austria have been two distinct states, though with certain common interests, and are united politically under the same dynasty.

IV. ITALY.

Austrian Domination.—The Congress of Vienna left Italy enslaved and divided. The dream of a restored nationality, nearly realized under Napoleon, was rudely dispelled; the old separations were renewed; the old tyrants were re-seated. Once more Austrian despotism hung like a millstone about the neck of the nation.

The history of Italy from 1815 to 1848 is one of chronic

insurrection. The Carbonari (charcoal-burners), a secret society formed to resist Bourbon oppression, numbered in Italy over half a million members, with branches in other countries. An organization known as Young Italy was formed by Mazzini, an Italian refugee, who first advanced the idea of a free united Italy. Besides open revolts, there were secret plots, while assassinations were only too frequently perpetrated in the name of liberty.

But Austria was strong enough, not only to hold her own possessions of Lombardy and Venice, but also to keep her creatures upon their thrones in the small states, and to crush the republican movement throughout the peninsula. There was one hopeful sign. In the kingdom of Sardinia, where Charles Albert began to reign in 1831, a spirit of nationality prevailed.

Revolution of 1848.—The example of the French and the German patriots roused the Italians to a new struggle. Milan and Venice rose in arms. Charles Albert raised the banner against Austria. For a time nearly all northern Italy was relieved from the Hapsburg yoke. But the patriot triumph was short. The Austrians gained so decisive a victory at *Novara* (1849) that the broken-hearted Sardinian king resigned his crown to his son Victor Emmanuel II.



PORTRAIT OF VICTOR EMMANUEL.

Pope Pius IX. was the friend of the Liberals, and had granted many rights to the people, but their demands increased during this republican year, and he finally fled from Rome. That city was then declared a republic, and Mazzini was elected chief of the *Triumvirs*, or magistrates. But, strangely enough, the French Republic espoused the cause of the Austrians, and, though Garibaldi, the "Hero of the red shirt," bravely defended Rome, it was carried by storm. The Pope came back with absolute power, and a French garrison was placed in the city.

By the close of 1849 the insurrection had been crushed out everywhere, and tyranny seemed triumphant. But in Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel maintained a constitutional

government, and more and more men began to look to him as the champion of Italian freedom. He kept his word to his people, who called him the "Honest King." In 1853, Count Cavour, an ardent and wise friend of Italian unity, became his prime minister. He induced Emmanuel to win the good will of France and England by helping them in the Crimean war. Accordingly the allied

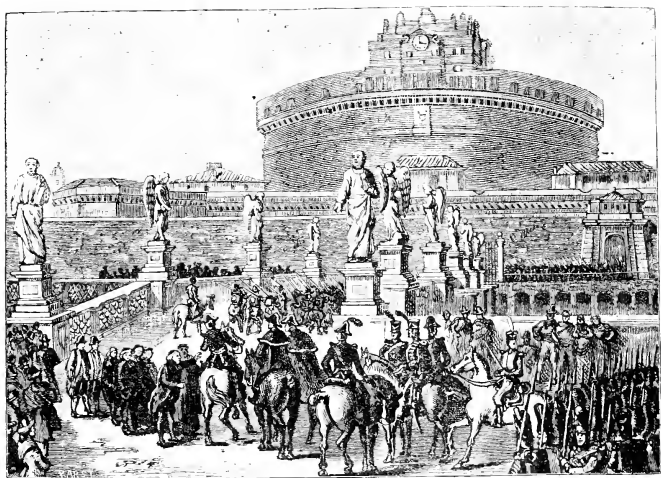


PORTRAIT OF GARIBALDI.

powers remonstrated with Ferdinand for his cruel rule in Italy, and finally France and Sardinia joined in a

War against Austria (1859).—Napoleon himself took

the field. The combined French and Sardinian forces won the brilliant victories of *Magenta* and *Solferino*. Napoleon had promised "to make Italy free from the Ticino to the Adriatic," and he seemed about to keep his word. But Prussia threatened to take the part of Austria, and Napoleon, without consulting Emmanuel, concluded the *Peace of Villafranca*. Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia. Soon after, Nice and Savoy were annexed to France. Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna, by a popular vote, became subject



THE FRENCH ARMY OCCUPYING THE CASTLE OF ST. ANGELO.

to Sardinia. Thus by the help of France nine million people were added to this kingdom,—the hope of Italy.

Freedom of Sicily and Naples.—Events now moved on rapidly. The people of Naples and Sicily groaned under the cruel Bourbon rule. Garibaldi, issuing from his rocky retreat of Caprera, landed at Marsala in Sicily, proclaiming himself dictator for Emmanuel. Palermo and Messina quickly fell into his hands, and, crossing to the mainland,

he entered Naples in triumph. The people of Naples and Sicily now joined themselves to Sardinia.

United Italy.—Emmanuel now controlled all Italy, except the Austrian province of Venetia and the city of Rome, which the French held for the Pope. The first Italian Parliament (Turin, 1861) proclaimed Victor Emmanuel King of Italy. Count Cavour died shortly after, but his policy of bringing his country into European politics quickly bore fruit. As the result of Italy's joining the Seven-Weeks' War between Austria and Prussia (1866), she got back Venice and Verona. Finally, during the struggle between France and Germany (1870), Napoleon called home the French troops, and the next year Victor Emmanuel removed his court from Florence to Rome. Upon the death of Victor Emmanuel, 1878, his son, Umberto I., succeeded to the crown. The Pope now ceased to be a temporal prince (p. 26), though he retained his spiritual power; and Leo XIII., the present (1899) supreme pontiff, resides in the Vatican.

V. TURKEY.

The Aggression of the Turks continued after the fall of Constantinople. Mohammed II. overthrew Greece, and threatened Italy. Bosnia and Albania were annexed. The Crimea was wrested from the Genoese. Hungary was repeatedly invaded. Twice Vienna itself was besieged. All southeastern Europe was finally conquered, save where the Montenegrins held their mountain fastnesses. Selim I., Mohammed II.'s grandson, extended his dominion over Mesopotamia, Assyria, Syria, and Egypt. The reign of Solyman, his son, marked the acme of the Turkish power (p. 130).

The battle of *Lepanto* (1571), in which the combined fleets of Spain, Venice, Genoa, and the Pope, under Don John of

Austria, destroyed the Turkish fleet, was the turning-point in the Ottoman progress. From that time, Poland, Hungary, and Austria steadily drove back the hated infidel. Finally the rise of Russia in the 18th century gave the Turk a new enemy. Peter the Great dreamed of making the Black Sea a Russian lake ; and the avowed determination of Russia has ever since been the conquest of the effete nation that shuts off the mighty northern empire from the Mediterranean. The integrity of Turkey, however, is a cardinal principle in European diplomacy. England especially, through jealousy of Russia's power in India, has supported the sultan. But for English interference, the remaining four millions of people upon whom there fell, at the beginning of modern history, the calamity of Turkish conquest, would ere this have achieved their freedom, and the barbarous Moslem intruders into Europe would have been wholly expelled.

In 1877-78 was fought the Russo-Turkish War, in which the Russians vanquished the Turks. The fruits of their victory, however, were partly lost through the interference of England. The *Berlin Treaty*, by which the Great Powers finally settled the matter, made Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro independent, secured additions to the territory of Austria-Hungary and Greece (p. 292), and granted self-government to Bulgaria and Crete. In Crete, however, the sultan's promises were not carried out, and the people rebelled. Greece then tried to annex the island (1897), but this was prevented by the Great Powers. Soon, however, war broke out between Greece and Turkey, and Greece was defeated, being saved from utter ruin only by the restraining influence of the Powers. Finally, the Cretan difficulty was ended when the son of the King of Greece was made its governor.

VI. GREECE.

Greece endured the hateful Turkish bondage for nearly four hundred years. Every rising for freedom was crushed with terrible cruelty. In the year 1821, however, the spirit of liberty flamed into inextinguishable revolt. Many Englishmen—among them Lord Byron, the poet—took sides with this heroic people. The beautiful island of Scio was laid waste by the Ottomans (1822); and the next year the Suliote patriot, Marco Bozzaris, during a night attack upon the enemy's camp, fell in the moment of victory. In this desperate contest of years, one half of the population is said to have perished, and large tracts of land were reduced to a desert. The Turks called the Egyptians to their help, and Greece seemed likely to be overwhelmed.

Finally, England, Russia, and France formed a league to aid the Hellenes in this unequal struggle. Their combined fleets destroyed the Turkish and Egyptian fleets in the Bay of *Navarino*,—the old Pylos (1827). The French troops drove the Egyptians out of the Peloponnesus, and in 1830 Greece became an independent kingdom under the protection of the Triple League. So at last the land of Plato and Pericles was free again. Georgias I., son of the King of Denmark, was elected King of Greece in 1863.¹

VII. THE NETHERLANDS.

The Netherlands, after Louis abdicated the throne, was annexed by Napoleon to France. In 1813 the people threw off the French yoke, and recalled the house of Orange to the

¹ It is interesting to note the interrelations of the European royal families. Thus in 1898 the Queen of Denmark was the mother of the King of Greece and the Princess of Wales, and grandmother of the Czar of Russia; while Queen Victoria was the grandmother of the German Emperor and of the Empress of Russia. At one time, Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, son of Victoria, was almost unanimously called by the Greeks to be their king, but the conditions of the Triple League forbade his acceptance.

government. The Congress of Vienna joined the northern and the southern provinces, Holland and Belgium, the united kingdom being called The Netherlands,—a name now applied to Holland only.

The Belgians, however, disliked the Hollanders; and a spark from the French Revolution of 1830, falling among this restive people, kindled the flame of insurrection. The independence of Belgium was declared, and Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha was called to the throne. His son, Leopold II., succeeded him in 1865.

Holland has had an uneventful history since its separation from Belgium. The present Queen of the Netherlands, Wilhelmina, succeeded her father, William III. of Orange, in 1890; her mother, Emma, acted as queen-regent until Wilhelmina became of age (1898).

VIII. RUSSIA.

Alexander II. (1855–81) introduced several reforms into this despotic empire. He improved the system of education, opened new commercial routes, and reorganized the army and navy. Greatest of all, he emancipated the serfs (1863), numbering between forty and fifty millions, one half of whom belonged to the Crown. But his emancipation policy enraged the aristocracy, while his refusal to grant a constitution displeased the other classes. The Nihilists (a powerful secret society sworn to the annihilation of Russia's present government) repeatedly sought to kill him. Thus, in spite of his reforms, Alexander, whose despotic father had walked the streets fearlessly, could not appear in public without peril of assassination. At last (1881) it came.

The reign of his son, Alexander III., was equally disturbed. By new and revived edicts against the Jews (1890), about two millions of people were suddenly deprived of all means

of support, banished the empire, or subjected to merciless severities. University disturbances continually arose on account of the laws which placed the schools under constant police surveillance, and large numbers of suspected students and professors swelled the army of political exiles to Siberia. In 1891-92 a severe famine intensified the woes of the common people.

In the reign of Nicholas II. (1894-) work on the great trans-Siberian railroad was pushed rapidly forward.

IX. JAPAN.

The Ruling Dynasty of Japan boasts of an unbroken succession during twenty-five centuries. Its founder, their chronicles assert, was Jimmu, from whom the present mikado, or emperor, is the one hundred and twenty-third in direct descent. The assumed date of Jimmu's ascension (660 B. C.) is styled the year 1 of the Japanese era.¹ In the 6th century A. D., Buddhism was introduced (through Corea) from China; with it came the Asiatic civilization. A stream of skilled artisans, scholars, teachers, and missionaries, poured into the country, and thenceforth the Japanese character was molded by the same forces that gave to the Celestial Empire its peculiar features.

The Shōgun, or Tycoon, the commander-in-chief of the army, acquired in 1192 the entire control of political affairs, the mikado retaining only the religious supremacy and the symbols of royalty. Under this dual form of government, there grew up a feudal system, the military leaders, or daimios, securing land in fief, erecting castles, and supporting a host of retainers. This relic of the middle ages lasted until 1868, when a revolution restored the mikado to su-

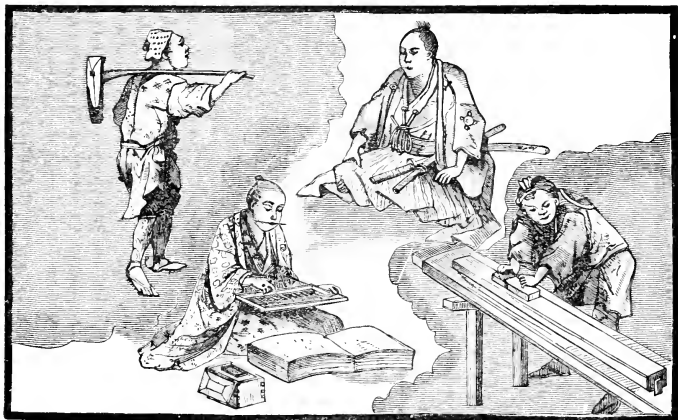
¹ This chronology would make Jimmu a contemporary of the Assyrian monarch Asshur-bani-pal (Anc. Peo., p. 49)

preme power, destroyed the Shogun's rule, and abolished the feudal titles and tenures. At the command of the mikado, two hundred and fifty vassal nobles, resigning their princely incomes, lands, and retinues, retired to private life.

The Portuguese, during the era of maritime adventure in the 16th century, came to Japan. The missionary quickly followed the sailor. Francis Xavier, the apostle to the Indies, introduced Christianity (1549), and in time six hundred thousand converts were made. This second influx of foreign civilization was stopped by the expulsion of the Portuguese and a violent persecution of the Christian Japanese. The history of the Church in Europe presents no more devoted faith or heroic constancy than were shown by the martyrs of this bloody period. The Dutch alone were allowed a residence upon an island in the harbor of Nagasaki, and to exchange a single ship-load of merchandise per year.

Commodore Perry, with a squadron of United States vessels, entered the harbor of Yokohama (1854). He made a treaty with Japan, and secured the opening of certain ports to our trade. Since then the third foreign wave has swept over the Sun-land. Successive commercial treaties have been made. The former exclusiveness has been broken down, old ideas have been uprooted, and the nation has been thrust into the path of modern civilization. In 1875 the mikado established a senate; in 1879 he inaugurated provincial and departmental assemblies; and in 1889 Japan became a constitutional monarchy, with a Cabinet, a Privy Council, a House of Peers, and a House of Representatives. Under the new order, absolute religious freedom is secured, elementary education made compulsory, kindergarten methods are provided, and a flourishing government university is supported. The principles and practice of modern jurisprudence rule the

courts. Thus in this progressive little island a single generation has witnessed governmental changes that required in Europe centuries to perfect.



THE FOUR CLASSES OF JAPANESE SOCIETY.—MILITARY, AGRICULTURAL, LABORING, AND MERCANTILE (FROM A DRAWING BY A NATIVE ARTIST).

X. CHINA.

Some Chinese ports were opened to foreign trade while Japan was still tightly closed against foreigners; but China's progress in modern civilization has been very slow. In the Chinese-Japanese War of 1894-95 Japan was everywhere successful, although her population and natural resources were but a tenth of what China could command. As a result of this war Japan gained Formosa and a money indemnity, and Korea was made independent.

The weakness of the Chinese Empire having thus been shown, it is in danger of undergoing a partition among the principal European powers. Already Manchuria in the north has passed under the practical control of Russia; France has secured concessions in the south; Great Britain

has asserted its exclusive influence (as against other foreign powers) over the great Yang-tze valley; and Germany and Italy have gained control of ports on the coast, with an undefined influence over the destinies of the adjoining inland regions.

XI. AFRICA.

Almost the entire continent of Africa is now parceled out among European nations, by virtue of various treaties among themselves and with native tribes. European settlers have established roads, railroads, and telegraphs, and the continent is being rapidly opened to civilization.

France conquered Algeria in the first half of the century, and she controls also Tunis, other parts of western Africa, and Madagascar.

Great Britain took Cape Colony from the Dutch in 1806, and soon began to send colonists there. The Dutch colonists, or Boers, then moved northward and established the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, or South African Republic. The Transvaal was later annexed by Great Britain, but after a short war it secured a treaty (1881) which gave it independence in internal affairs, while in its foreign relations it was to be subject to Great Britain. When gold was found there in large quantities, a great many foreigners, chiefly British, went there to live, but were excluded from what they considered a fair share in the government. The resulting friction became acute in 1896 and in 1899 led to a second war with Great Britain.

Great Britain also controls the territory about the mouth of the Niger, and an almost continuous line of provinces from Cape Colony to Egypt. The Soudan, formerly belonging to Egypt, became independent soon after Great Britain assumed control of Egyptian affairs. But in 1898

the army of Sir Herbert Kitchener won over the Soudanese the great battles of Atbara and Omdurman, and recovered the lost province.

Germany and Portugal own extensive territories in the southern half of Africa. The Kongo Free State is controlled by the King of the Belgians.

XII. THE SPANISH COLONIES—SOUTH AMERICA.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the chief Spanish colonies included the Philippines, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Mexico, Central America, and most of South America—except Brazil, which belonged to Portugal. When Napoleon placed his brother on the Spanish throne, the loyalty of these colonies was weakened, and by 1825 all but the Philippines, Cuba, and Puerto Rico won independence. Finally, a rebellion in Cuba led to a war between Spain and the United States (1898), by which Spain lost all three of these colonies. The former Spanish colonies on the American continent had become republics; but Brazil, on severing its connection with Portugal, became an empire. In 1890, however, a revolution transformed that country also into a republic. Its President in 1899 was Campos Salles.

READING REFERENCES.

For works on the French Revolution, see p. 252.—Müller's *History of Recent Times*, translated by Peters (commended to all as an excellent résumé of General History from 1816 to 1881).—McCarthy's *Epoch of Reform* (*Epochs of History Series*).—Griffith's *The Mikado's Empire, and Political Progress in Japan* (*The Forum*, Feb., 1891).—McCarthy's *History of Our Own Times*.—Kinglake's *Invasion of the Crimea*.—Hunt's *History of Italy* (*Freeman's Historical Course*).—May's *Constitutional History of England* (especially valuable in its account of reforms).—Mackenzie's *The Nineteenth Century*.—Wrightson's *History of Modern Italy, 1815-50*.—Felton's *Ancient and Modern Greece*.—Freeman's *The Turk in Europe*.—Talleyrand's *Memoirs*.

HISTORICAL RECREATIONS.

MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN PEOPLES.

1. On a monument of Canova's in St. Peter's are inscribed the following names of British sovereigns: James III., Charles III., and Henry IX. Who were they?

2. Who was the "Snow King"? The "Winter King"?

3. We read in the history of France of the "Constitution of the Year III.;" the "Constitution of the Year VIII.;" the "Revolution of the 18th Brumaire;" the "Revolution of the 18th Fructidor;" etc. Explain.

4. A historian says, "Morgarten was the Marathon of Switzerland." Explain.

5. What great war was waging in Europe during our War of 1812?

6. Who was said to be the "first man in Europe, and the second in France"?

7. In what great emergency did the Dutch propose to imitate the Athenians?

8. Compare Cardinals Wolsey and Richelieu.

9. It is said that the "Duke of Guise under Henry III. threatened to be another Pepin to a second Childeric." Explain.

10. Who were the "Sea Beggars"?

11. Who was the "nephew of his uncle"?

12. Name the revolutions in France since 1789.

13. What names of kings are common to England, France, and Germany?

14. What name is confined to England? France? Germany? Russia?

15. Which was the most illustrious Henry of England? France? Germany?

16. What woman was the prime mover in the massacre of St. Bartholomew?

17. What English king had six wives?

18. What English king assumed the title of "King of France"?

19. Compare the Charleses of England with those of France.

20. How many kings ruled in England during the reign of Louis XIV.?

21. What was the difference between the titles "King of the Romans" and "Emperor of Germany"?

22. What German king kept an English king in prison until ransomed?

23. Name the German emperors who led an army into Italy.
24. Who was the "First Gentleman in Europe"?
25. Who was the "Little Man in Red Stockings"?
26. When did Russia first meddle in the affairs of western Europe?
27. Which is the oldest nation in Europe? The youngest?
28. Who was the "Last of the Tribunes"?
29. Who was the "Madman of the North"?
30. What Stuart sovereign did not meet a tragical end?
31. What high office did Wolsey hope to secure?
32. Who was the "Silent One"? The "Lost Dauphin"?
33. What was the Babylonish Captivity?
34. Who was the "First of the Stuarts"?
35. Name the different World's Fairs.
36. What were the so-called "Reform Banquets"?
37. Who was the "Conqueror of Crécy"?
38. Describe the different Revolutions of 1848 in Europe.
39. What *three* English kings, each the *third* of his name, reigned over fifty years?
40. When did France have an insane king? England?
41. Who was the first of the Norman kings to die in England?
42. Who was the "Merry Monarch"?
43. State the time, the cause, and the result upon Prussia, of the Seven-Years' War; the Seven-Months' (Franco-Prussian) War; the Seven-Weeks' War.
44. Who was the "Conqueror of Blenheim"?
45. The Scots termed the Pretender "James VIII." Explain.
46. What corresponding financial bubbles were blown in England and in France early in the 18th century?
47. Who was the "Great Commoner"?
48. Explain the sentence in Macaulay's History, "Hundreds of thousands whom the Popish Plot had scared into Whiggism, had been scared back by the Rye House Plot into Toryism."
49. Who was called the "Best of the Georges"?
50. Who was Louis XVII. of France?
51. Who was "King Hal"?
52. Who was Napoleon II. of France?
53. A historian remarks, "In 1806 the 120th of the Cæsars became only Francis II. of Austria." Explain.
54. Who was the "Citizen King"?
55. Whom did Carlyle style the "Great Prussian Drill Sergeant"?
56. Who was the "Conqueror of Agincourt"?
57. How many republics have been established in France?
58. Name the principal battles of Condé.
59. A historian, remarking upon the reign of Louis XVI. of France,

says, "There was now no Mayor of the Palace, no Count of Paris, no Henry IV., to found a new dynasty." Explain.

60. Who was "Queen Bess"?

61. What was the cause of the long hostility between England and France?

62. What is the European States-System?

63. Who was the "Iron Duke"?

64. Who was the "Greatest of the Plantagenets"?

65. State the origin of the Methodists; of the Friends.

66. When was the last States-General convened in France?

67. Who was the first Prince of Wales?

68. Who was the "King of Bourges"?

69. Describe the effect of the Norman Conquest of England.

70. When Charles XII. invaded Russia, Peter said, "My brother Charles affects to play the part of Alexander; but I think he will not find in me a Darius." Explain.

71. Who was the "Old Pretender"? The "Young Pretender"?

72. What prime minister governed the English Parliament by bribery?

73. Who was "Good Queen Anne"? The "Virgin Queen"?

74. Contrast the conduct of the spectators at the execution of Charles I. and of Louis XVI.

75. Who was the "Napoleon of Peace"?

76. Who was the first king of England?

77. Compare the fate and the character of Richard II. and Edward II. of England.

78. Who was styled the "King of the French"?

79. Why did the Normans finally blend so easily with the Anglo-Saxons in England?

80. What were the causes of the French Revolution?

81. What is meant by the Balance of Power?

82. In what respect did the conquest by the Turks resemble that by the Germans?

83. When did the *tiers état* get its first representation in France?

84. Who were Wesley and Whitefield?

85. Compare the close of the Carlovingian dynasty in France with that of the Merovingian.

86. Tell what the Normans did in Europe.

87. Who was the "Prisoner of Ham"? (Napoleon III.)

88. What was the Pragmatic Sanction?

89. Why are there so many French artisans in England?

90. Who was Henry V. of France?

91. What kings had titles referring to physical qualities? To mental qualities?

92. What was the Treaty of Paris? Vienna? Presburg? Luneville? Amiens? Campo Formio? Passau? Tilsit? Utrecht? Aix-la-Chapelle? Nimeguen? Ryswick?

93. State the causes, effects, principal battles, and prominent generals of the Hundred-Years' War.

94. Bound France at the accession of Capet.

95. What event in English history did Napoleon's dispersion of the Five Hundred resemble?

96. Who was the "Grand Monarch"?

97. Who were the most despotic kings named in history?

98. Who was the "Count of Chambord"? Who is "Eugenie"?

99. Who fought the battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet?

100. When and where were the Reformers called Protestants?

101. Who were the Whigs? The Tories? What was the origin of these names?

102. What was the Fronde?

103. For what is Sully famous?

104. Quote some noted historical passages from Shakspeare.

105. When did the Germans first invade France?

106. Who were the "Do-nothing kings"?

107. In how many great battles were the Austrians defeated by Napoleon?

108. What French king made the first invasion of Italy? The last?

109. Who was the "Hero of Rocroi"?

110. Who fought the battles of Fontenoy, Raucoux, and Lawfelt?

111. Who was the "Sailor King"?

112. For what is Francis I. noted in history? Louis XIV.? Louis XV.? Henry IV. of France? Henry IV. of Germany?

113. What was the Edict of Nantes?

114. Who was the last king of France? The last emperor?

115. What two great generals died during a tempest?

116. State what was decided by the Peace of Westphalia.

117. Who was "Corporal Violet"?

118. Who fought the battles of Rocroi, Freiburg, Nordlingen, and Lens?

119. What French kings reigned during the time of the Crusades?

120. For what is Colbert noted? Louvois?

121. Who were the Huguenots?

122. State the principal events in the life of Luther.

123. Who were the Nonconformists?

124. Name the chief kings of the 14th century; the 18th.

125. Who was King of France in 1066? 1572? 1648? 1776?

126. Give the origin of the French "tricolor."

127. What important event occurred at the Diet of Worms?
128. Who was the great rival of Charles V.?
129. What was Napoleon's first great victory? His last?
130. What was the Confession of Augsburg?
131. Who were the Puritans? The Separatists? The Independents?
132. Explain the following sentence used by an historian: "Pope Gregory XIII. saw in Henry III. a second Louis V., and in Henry Duke of Guise a new Hugh Capet."
133. Tell the story of the Spanish Armada.
134. Describe the English Revolution of 1688.
135. Whose motto was "Divide and govern"?
136. Describe the pomp, power, and fate of Wallenstein.
137. How many great battles did Napoleon lose?
138. Name the causes, effects, duration, principal battles, and prominent generals, of the War of the Spanish Succession.
139. What was the object of the Council of Trent?
140. Describe the events by which the Church of England was separated from Rome.
141. Tell the story of Essex and the ring.
142. What was the life-purpose of William, Prince of Orange?
143. Who was the "Little Corporal"?
144. What was the Tennis-court oath?
145. What was the cause of the downfall of Napoleon I.? Napoleon III.?
146. What English monarch was the contemporary of Charles V. and Luther?
147. What was the fate of Archbishop Cranmer?
148. Name and distinguish the three famous Princes of Orange.
149. Describe the sack of Magdeburg.
150. What French kings reigned during the time of the Hundred-Years' War?
151. Was Henry VIII. favorable to Luther?
152. What effect did the massacre of St. Bartholomew have upon the civil war in France?
153. What marriage laid the foundation of the rivalry between the houses of Austria and France?
154. Who prepared the Book of Common Prayer?
155. Who was John Calvin? George Fox?
156. Name the best kings in the Capetian line; the Carolingian line; the Tudor line; the Stuart line; the Bourbon line; the Plantagenet line.
157. What was the character of Catharine de' Medici?
158. Describe the last days of Charles V.
159. What was the object of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes?

160. What peculiar tactics did Napoleon adopt at Austerlitz?
161. What was the effect of the battle of Naseby?
162. What were Richelieu's aims?
163. What was the peculiarity of the reign of Charles II. of England?
164. What French king married Mary, afterward Queen of Scots?
165. What was meant by ship-money?
166. What was the Long Parliament?
167. What queens of France were divorced?
168. What is meant by the "Sun of Austerlitz"?
169. What was the duration of the so-called Hundred-Years' War?
170. What was the Gunpowder Plot?
171. Tell something about the character of Marlborough.
172. What was "Pride's Purge"?
173. What was the Battle of the Nations?
174. What was the Day of the Sections?
175. What was the Seven-Years' War called in America?
176. Who was the "Hero of Marston Moor"?
177. For what is the elder Pitt noted?
178. How many Henrys were among the kings of France?
179. How many French kings have surrendered to the enemy?
180. Describe the glory of Cromwell's Protectorate.
181. What king learned the ship-builder's trade?
182. What great capitals of Europe did Napoleon enter in triumph?
183. Sketch the life of Charles XII. of Sweden.
184. What does the change of name from Northmen to Normans indicate?
185. What infant in his cradle received the title of the "King of Rome"? (See Brief Hist. France.)
186. In what battle were spurs of more service than swords?
187. Who were the Leaguers?
188. What was Walpole's policy?
189. Who were the Schoolmen?
190. Who were the Ironsides?
191. Name the great battles fought between the French and the English.
192. What was the Rump Parliament?
193. Who is sometimes styled Napoleon IV.?
194. Why was Cromwell's rule distasteful to the English?
195. How many coalitions leading to war have been made against France?
196. How many years have the descendants of Capet occupied the throne of France?
197. What was the Declaration of Rights?
198. Who was John Law?

199. What was the Black Hole? The Black Death?
200. Which was the first victory of the French Republic? Its effect?
201. Should Louis XVI. be blamed for the Revolution?
202. How many times did Napoleon enter Vienna as a conqueror?
203. When did Kossuth appear in history?
204. Describe the Reign of Terror.
205. How many years has the government of France been a republic? An empire?
206. Name the principal actors in the Jacobin rule during the French Revolution.
207. Who were the Carbonari?
208. Where are the keys of the Bastille?
209. What were the Assignats?
210. What was the Test Act?
211. What great poet helped Greece achieve its freedom?
212. Who was the Black Prince?
213. What great events occurred in the time of Philip I.?
214. What was the Renaissance?
215. Illustrate how often, in history, a strong king has been followed by a weak one.
216. What was the first English Reform Bill?
217. What great war was marked by the capture of a king and a pope, and the sack of Rome?
218. What great political crime was perpetrated soon after the Seven-Years' War?
219. To what line of kings did Charles V. of France belong? Henry IV. of France? Henry IV. of England? Henry IV. of Germany? Louis XV.? Charles the Simple of France?
220. Who was "Father Fritz"?
221. What was the German Confederation? When was it formed?
222. On the public buildings in Paris are inscribed the words, "Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité." Whence did this motto take its rise?
223. Why was not the art of printing discovered earlier than the 15th century? (This question is designed to bring up the general relation of supply and demand.)
224. Who was the "Corsican Adventurer"?
225. Name the great victories of Luxemburg.
226. How did Marlborough's fall affect continental affairs?
227. What memorable event occurred at the siege of Leyden in 1574?
228. In what battle did Gustavus Adolphus fall?
229. What victories did the Prince of Orange win over the French?
230. What was the South Sea Bubble?
231. How is the history of Maria Theresa linked with that of Frederick the Great?

232. What monarch wore high-heeled shoes to increase his stature?
233. What is meant by the elder and the younger branch of the Bourbons?
234. Name some standard life of Frederick the Great; Louis XIV.; Charles XII.; Peter the Great; Napoleon; Charles V.
235. What was the Mississippi scheme? How did it affect this country?
236. Whence did the French derive their love of a strong, centralized government?
237. Name the standard histories of England, and state their peculiarities and the periods they cover.
238. When and by whom was St. Petersburg founded?
239. How many Johns have reigned in France? In England?
240. Sketch the character of the "Four Georges."
241. When and how did France lose Canada?
242. What kings were assassinated?
243. What ruler occupied a different bed every night?
244. Illustrate the love of his soldiers for Napoleon I.
245. What was the Golden Bull?
246. What was the Aulic Council?
247. Who were the Girondists?
248. Who were the Roundheads? The Cavaliers?
249. How did the character of George III. affect this country?
250. Name the great men who clustered about Louis XIV.
251. What women have exerted a great influence on French history?
252. What was the fate of Marat? Danton? Robespierre?
253. What great victories did Nelson achieve? Effect?
254. When, where, and between whom, was the battle of Guinegate fought? Steinkirk? Lens? Blenheim? Jena? Pavia? Waterloo? Wagram? Oudenarde?
255. What influence did our Revolutionary War have upon France?
256. What great battle finally checked the Turkish advance in Europe?
257. Describe the retreat from Moscow.
258. Sketch the growth of the Papacy after the fall of Rome.
259. What was Queen Anne's war called in Europe?
260. What monarch persecuted the Protestants in France, and yet protected them in Germany? Why?
261. With what European nations was England engaged in war during our Revolution?
262. What modern nation, in imitation of ancient Rome, has been governed by a consul?
263. In what century was the age of Louis XIV.? The age of Elizabeth? The age of Richelieu?

264. Who suppressed the Knights Templars?
265. What was our King William's War called in Europe?
266. What great battles have been fought on the plains of Leipsic?
267. What was the point of difference between the Calvinists and the Lutherans?
268. Name the principal battles of Napoleon I.
269. Give an account of Napoleon at the Bridge of Lodi.
270. What were the Berlin decrees?
271. What is meant in French history by the Revolution? The Hundred Days? The Restoration?
272. For what achievement is Sobieski noted?
273. Who were the Janissaries?
274. Sketch Wellington's career.
275. Who was the "Exile of St. Helena"?
276. Duruy says, "Napoleon III. was not a royal do-nothing." Explain the allusion.
277. What was the cause of the long hatred between England and France?
278. What great statesman died on hearing of the battle of Austerlitz?
279. When was the temporal power of the Pope founded?
280. "The dream of Charlemagne and Charles V. was Napoleon's also." Explain.
281. What was the Zollverein?
282. What were the causes of the French Revolution of 1830? 1848? 1871?
283. For what is the year 800 noted? 1000? 1066? 1346? 1415? 1492? 1494? 1517? 1525? 1558? 1571? 1572? 1588? 1598? 1630? 1648? 1666? 1704? 1707? 1756? 1775? 1789?
284. Sketch Napoleon's Egyptian campaign.
285. What was the object of the Anti-Corn-Law League?
286. Who were the Chartists?
287. Name some Italians who have attained prominence in French politics.
288. What was the effect upon European history of the marriage of Mary of Burgundy to Maximilian?
289. What is the Code Napoleon?
290. What was the kingdom of Burgundy?
291. What curious story is told of Rollo's doing homage for his fief?
292. How did Charlotte Corday's dagger precipitate the Reign of Terror?
293. Name some incident of the battle of Ivry.
294. What was Cavour's policy?
295. What was Luther's object in posting the ninety-five theses on the cathedral door?

296. What child-kings have occupied the throne of France? Of England?

297. Who is the "Sick Man"?

298. What became of Josephine after the fall of Napoleon? Maria Louisa? (See Brief Hist. France.)

299. Where did the charge of the Six Hundred occur?

300. Name the causes and effects, the duration, the principal battles, and the prominent generals, of the Seven-Years' War.

301. What French king had the longest reign? The shortest?

302. What was the effect of the battle of Morgarten? Nancy? Waterloo? Jena? Jemmapes? Runnymede? Pavia?

303. Describe the state of the Church when Luther appeared.

304. What three great European monarchs were contemporaneous in the 16th century?

305. How many French kings have been dethroned?

306. What will be the probable effect upon Italy of the Suez Canal?

307. What caused the hostility between Zwingli and Luther?

308. Who was the "Golden-footed Dame"?

309. When did a charge of a small body of cavalry decide a great battle?

310. How many times have foreign armies taken Paris?

311. What was the Holy Alliance?

312. What is meant by the "Three Days of July"?

313. What folly did Prince Rupert commit at the battle of Naseby?

314. Why did Francis I. form an alliance with the Turks?

315. What three kings in succession led great armies into Italy?

316. Who was the chevalier "without fear and without reproach"?

317. What king sent his own sons to prison in order to release himself?

318. Relate some anecdote, or state some interesting fact, concerning Cromwell; Napoleon; Louis XIV.; Peter the Great; Charles XII.; Charlemagne; Mary Queen of Scots; Elizabeth.

319. What was the Smalcaldic War?

320. Explain the *coup d'état* of Dec. 2.

321. What was the League of Cambrai?

322. State the causes of the Guelf and Ghibelline feud.

323. Name the great events that marked the beginning of the modern era.

324. What was the War of the Investiture?

325. When and where was gunpowder first used in battle?

326. What was the needle-gun?

327. What was an interdict?

328. What island kingdom has accomplished in a generation what required centuries in Europe to perfect?

329. Tell the sad story of Lady Jane Grey.
330. Distinguish between the two Maurices named in history.
331. Name the leaders in the French Civil-Religious War.
332. Who was the first Bourbon king?
333. What were Mary Stuart's claims to the English throne?
334. What was the Conquest of Granada? How is that event connected with our history?
335. What was Magna Charta?
336. What were the causes of the Revival of Learning?
337. Who was Tilly?
338. What is the tricolored flag? How did it originate?
339. Who was the "Horace of France"?
340. Describe Charles II.'s alliance with Louis XIV.
341. In what respect did Charles I. resemble his father?
342. What great battles were won with the longbow?
343. Compare the influence of the discovery of gunpowder with that of printing.
344. What points of contrast were there between the first Stuart king of England and the Tudors?
345. What is meant by the "divine right of kings"?
346. What was the Triple Alliance?
347. Name two instances in which a spider has changed the fate of a great man.
348. Describe the Saracenic civilization in Spain.
349. What event caused Wolsey's fall?
350. Show how the doctrines and forms of the English Church were shaped under Edward VI.
351. What were the greatest events of the 15th century? 16th? 17th? 18th?
352. What effect did the Crusades have upon Europe?
353. What was the Congress of Vienna?
354. Sketch the steps by which Prussia became the head of Germany.
355. With what generals are the battles of Fleurus, Steinkirk, and Neerwinden connected?
356. In what great campaign was the bayonet first used?
357. How did Richelieu capture Rochelle?
358. Who was the "Upholsterer of Notre Dame"?
359. What is meant by the devastation of the Palatinate?
360. Who were the Moors of Spain?
361. What was the Ladies' Peace?
362. Who were the Knights of St. John?
363. State the "pivotal point," or the tactics, or some marked incident, that decided the issue of the following battles, and by which they

can be remembered: Pavia; Leipsic; Lech; Lützen; Freiburg; Marston Moor; Naseby; battle of the Boyne; Plains of Abraham; Lodi; Arcole; Rivoli; Austerlitz; Waterloo.

364. What king wrote an essay against the use of tobacco?

365. What was the Petition of Right?

366. What was "Thorough"?

367. Who were the Covenanters?

368. What was the effect of Luther's translating the Bible?

369. Describe the extent and power of the Spanish Empire under Charles V. and Philip II.

370. Who were the Jacobites? The Jacobins?

371. Describe the amusements of three noted kings reigning in the early part of the 18th century.

372. Quote Johnson's verses upon Charles XII.

373. What event marked the opening of the 18th century?

374. Name the last battle in which an English king fought in person.

375. What monarch said that he "treated as a prince, and not as a merchant"? "I make war on the living, not on the dead"?

376. When did a death save a great king? •

377. Tell the story of the famous wind-mill still shown at Potsdam.

378. State the steps of the Unification of Italy.

379. Who was the "Hero of the Red Shirt"?

380. What effect did the Franco-German War of '71 have upon Italy?

381. What war was brought on by the closing of two churches? By the massacre of a congregation?

382. How did Italy become a province of the Eastern Empire?

383. What remarkable man was born in Arabia in the 6th century?

384. Explain why the Crusaders encountered in Palestine both Turks and Saracens.

385. What tales describe Arabian manners and customs in the 8th century?

386. What complaint was made against the earliest Hanoverian kings of England?

387. During how many years was England a republic?

388. Which one of Napoleon's generals did the Congress of Vienna allow to retain his throne?

389. Who was the author of the inductive method of reasoning?

390. Mention some of Mohammed's doctrines.

391. What was the Continental System?

392. Why did the Puritans emigrate to America?

393. What literature was diffused by the fall of Constantinople?

394. Describe the expulsion of the Moors from Spain by Philip III.

395. Show how trade with India has enriched Europe.

396. What was the greatest extent of the Saracen Empire?
397. How many queens have ruled England?
398. Name the "Four Conquests of England."
399. Which is the longest war named in European history?
400. Sketch the principal steps in the growth of constitutional liberty in England.
401. Do the Turks belong in Europe?
402. State the cause, duration, decisive battle, and effect of the War of the Roses.
403. What English reign coincided with three French reigns, and, *vice versa*, what French reign coincided with three English ones?
404. Sketch the principal features of feudalism.
405. Who was the "Monk of Cluny"?
406. Who was the "Great Captain"?
407. What remarkable men lived during the last decade of the 15th century?
408. What famous duke died in a pool of water by the roadside?
409. What treaty was negotiated upon a raft in the river?
410. How long was Hanover joined to England?
411. What solitary act of courage did Richard II. show?
412. Who was Henry the Fowler?
413. Contrast early German with early French history.
414. Is there a sharp division between any two ages in history?
415. What Dutch admiral tied a broom to his masthead?
416. How long after the battle of Hastings did the Great Fire at London occur?
417. Repeat the epigram upon Charles I.
418. What daughter helped expel her father from his throne?
419. Who was Peter Zimmermann?
420. Who was the Great Elector?
421. What king had a body-guard of giants?
422. When did the Battle of the Three Emperors occur?
423. When did the Pope come to Paris to crown a French king?
424. When did the birth of an heir cost an English king his crown?
425. Tell the story of Maria Theresa before the Hungarian Diet.
426. Was Cromwell justified in executing Charles I.?
427. What was the New Model?
428. What two great men had the power, but dare not take the title, of king?
429. Sketch the general characteristics of the Stuarts; the Tudors.
430. What was the Praise-God Barebone's Parliament?
431. What was the longest gap between two successive English Parliaments? Two French States-Generals?
432. Who said, "Better a drowned land than a lost land"?

433. What was "Morton's Fork"?
434. "Francis I. on his way to Paris from Madrid vaped much of Regulus." Explain.
435. Charles V. once said, "I do not intend to blush like Sigismund." Explain.
436. What English kings were authors?
437. What was the Revolt of the Beggars?
438. Who said, "Some birds are too big for any cage"?
439. Who was the "Tyrant of the Escorial"?
440. Why did not Pope Clement VII. dare to offend Charles V.?
441. What English minister lost his head for getting his king a homely wife?
442. Who was the first queen-regnant of England?
443. Who was styled the "Flower of Chivalrie"?
444. What kings have expelled from their dominions large classes of their subjects?
445. Contrast the general characteristics of the middle ages with those of the modern era.
446. Who was the "King-maker"?
447. What was the Holy Roman Empire?
448. Name several instances of the general persecuting spirit of former times.
449. What English author defends the character and conduct of Henry VIII.?
450. Describe the growth and influence of free cities in the middle ages.
451. Mr. Bagehot writes, "The slavish Parliament of Henry VIII. grew into the murmuring Parliament of Queen Elizabeth, the mutinous Parliament of James I., and the rebellious Parliament of Charles I." Explain.
452. What great events occurred in 1689?
453. Was Napoleon I.'s reign a permanent benefit to France? What was its general effect upon Europe?
454. When did a beggar's grandson become a king?
455. Who said, "I am the state"?
456. Who was the "Last of the Knights"?
457. What peasant girl became a queen?
458. Has Germany or France ever had a queen-regnant?
459. To what historical event is allusion made in the poem beginning,—
- "On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow?"
460. Name the fifteen most decisive battles and sieges of modern times, and state the reasons for the selection.

INDEX

AND PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY.

* * The figures refer to the page number.

NOTE.—Diacritical marks are as follows: *ā, ē, ī, ō, ū*, are long; *ǎ, ě, ǝ, ǔ, ǖ*, short, as in *ām, mēt, ĩn, ōn, ǔp*; *ā, ā, ā, g*, as in *cāre, ārm, āsk, qll*; *ū* as in *full*; *ē* as in *term*; *ē* as in *there*; *ç* like *s*; *ġ* like *j*; *ch* like *k*; *ş* like *z*; *th* as in *thine*.

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